

THE AMERICAN REVIEW

ON THE

SOVIET UNION

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FEBRUARY, 1946

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SOVIET TRADE UNION FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

GERMINA RABINOWITCH

THE EMERGENCE of the Soviet trade union movement upon the international scene is one of the significant developments of the past few years. Soviet trade union delegations have recently visited the United States, England, France, and other countries, while trade union delegations from various countries have been received in the USSR. British-Soviet and Franco-Soviet Trade Union Committees have been established, and a proposal for organization of an American-Soviet Trade Union Committee has been endorsed by CIO and Soviet trade union leaders. Finally, Soviet trade union delegations played an important part in the preparatory work and final constitution, in Paris last October, of the World Federation of Trade Unions. The development of the WFTU can be expected to keep Soviet labor on the world horizon.

Interest in the character of the movement behind these delegations has grown with their expanding international contacts. Questions are asked concerning the nature of a trade union in the Soviet economy. What are its functions, its responsibilities, the scope of its activities? The purpose of this article is to provide at least some of this information.

* * *

At the time of the October Revolution of 1917, the Russian trade union movement was only 13 years old. Springing out of the 1905 Revolution, Russia's first trade unions had a membership of 200,000 members by the end of 1906. That figure represented the peak of their growth until the revival of the Russian revolutionary movement in the years directly preceding World War One gave fresh impetus to the trade unions. After 1911 they became increasingly militant in the organization of strikes and in the day-to-day struggle for higher wages, for improved working conditions and for worker representation in factory management.

Establishment of the Soviet State in 1917 brought a fundamental change in these activities. The union began to take an active part in building the new economy. A directive issued in 1921 by the Tenth Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union calls upon the unions, among other things, to "serve the working people in all the needs of their daily life, gradually integrating large strata of the working people into State reconstruction."¹

The re-introduction of some private manufacturing and trade during the period of the NEP (New Economic Policy, 1922-1928) brought a temporary re-orientation of trade union policy. The unions' principal task during that period was to safeguard the rights of Soviet workers in the privately owned enterprises.

The contemporary history of the Soviet trade union movement begins in 1928, with the introduction of the First Five-Year Plan. Since that time, the unions have been prominently associated with the general program for progressively increasing production based on national economic plans. By concentrating all their energies upon the industrialization and economic development of the USSR, it was stressed, Soviet workers and other groups of citizens would directly benefit from the resultant improvement in the country's economic condition. Consequently, "All for Production" became a trade union slogan.

This policy was expressed in a resolution passed at the Sixteenth Congress of the Communist Party, in June, 1930. The resolution states in part, "One of the most important tasks of the trade unions is to explain to the masses that the workers are not working for capitalists but for their own State and for the welfare of their own class. Realization of this fact will release vast forces that will aid industrial development."

This statement points up the basic Soviet concept of the trade union as an organization which is engaged, not in a struggle against an employing class—which does not exist in the USSR—for workers' rights and for better working conditions, but in the active contribution to increased and improved production leading to a higher living standard for all Soviet citizens. An incentive wage system and other stimuli to higher labor productivity have, therefore, been favored by Soviet trade unions. These include use of the piece-work system wherever possible, the development of socialist competition and the extension of special awards and privileges to the most efficient workers—the so-called shock workers, *udarniks* and Stakhanovites. Obviously, equalization of wages is opposed.

The year 1933 was an important one in Soviet trade union history.

¹ *Sovetskaya Bolshaya Entsiklopediya*, "Professionalnyie Soyuzy," Vol. 47, pp. 419-426.

Economic developments required that changes be made then in the functions of the Commissariat of Labor, according to a report made by Nikolai G. Shvernik, then General Secretary of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions at a plenary meeting of the AUCCTU² held in Moscow in June 1933. Since unemployment was considered to have disappeared, regulation of the labor market by the Commissariat of Labor³ was no longer necessary. Moreover, the trade unions, because of their direct contact with industry, were felt to be in a better position to carry out the new labor policy and to voice workers' demands for labor protection, social insurance and similar measures.

A decree issued jointly on June 23rd, 1933 by the Central Executive Committee and the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR, and by the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions meets this new situation. This decree sets forth the decision "to combine the Commissariat of Labor of the USSR and all its local organs, including the organs of social insurance, with the apparatus of the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions and its local organs, charging the latter with fulfillment of the duties of the Commissariat of Labor and its organs."⁴

A Government decree of September 10th, 1933, supplemented by an AUCCTU order issued the following day, lists the following matters as being within the province of the trade unions: wages, social insurance, factory inspection, industrial hygiene and safety measures, supervision and revision of job norms, examination of the labor provisions in the economic plan, and labor efficiency. Other responsibilities were subsequently added, especially for the general welfare, education and recreation of workers, and assumed ever-increasing importance among trade union activities.

TRADE UNION STRUCTURE

There are no craft unions in the USSR. All Soviet unions are organized on an industrial or "vertical" basis with the branch of the national economy to which an enterprise belongs determining the union affiliation of its personnel. Regardless of the nature of their work, professional qualifications or skills, therefore, all persons attached to the same factory or other enterprise are members of the same union. Plant directors and other top representatives of management, while usually dues-paying and voting members, rarely if ever serve as union functionaries or as members of committees.

² The Russian abbreviation for the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions (Vsesoyuzny Tsentralny Sovet Professionalnykh Soyusov) is VTsSPS.

³ The Commissariat of Labor had been entrusted with the solution of all problems concerned with the distribution of manpower (employment and unemployment, manpower reserves and the like) also with administration of legislation for social insurance and industrial safety. This Commissariat was abolished in 1933.

⁴ *Izvestia*, June 24, 1933.

Membership in Soviet trade unions is voluntary. The elective and individual nature of affiliation was first set forth in September 1922 at the Fifth General Trade Unions Congress. It should be pointed out, however, that trade union members enjoy preferential treatment. For example, sickness insurance benefits awarded to union members are double those received by non-members in the equivalent situation. Union members get priority in the allocation of accommodations in rest homes and sanatoria. Appeals to workers to join trade unions are based largely therefore, on an exposition of the various material benefits of union membership.⁵

Soviet trade union members now total more than 27 million, representing about 85 percent of all Soviet workers, according to Mikhail P. Tarasov, a Soviet trade union leader who recently visited the United States. In 1931 the members were distributed among 23 trade unions. The number of unions has increased to 191, according to Mr. Tarasov.

The bottom rung of the trade union ladder is the Production Group, generally composed of not more than 20 workers in the same primary production unit. This group or brigade meets frequently to consider such matters as fulfillment of production programs, observance of collective agreements, labor protection, food supply, recreation and educational programs, and the admission and expulsion of members. A group organizer elected from the membership is responsible for calling the Production Group into session and carrying out its decisions. The organizer also attends to miscellaneous daily needs of workers and collects union dues.

Directly above the Production Group is the Shop Committee; in undertakings running on permanent shifts there are Shift Committees as well. The top unit of trade union activity in a single enterprise is its Works Committee or *Zavkom*. It is elected by a general meeting of union members except in very large establishments where election is by a conference of delegates, each of whom represents from 25 to 50 union members. General meetings of trade union members are held every six weeks in shops and small establishments and quarterly in larger ones. The members of trade union committees, most of whom serve one-year terms, must report regularly at these membership meetings and are subject to recall for unsatisfactory performance.

Attending meetings and taking part in elections are only a fraction of the duties of the members of these committees. The steady growth in their activities has paralleled the steady reduction in the number of paid trade union officials, which is now relatively small. In establishments employing from 500 to 2,000 workers there is one paid union

⁵ *Trud*, July 31, 1945. This important Soviet newspaper is published by the AUCCTU.

official; in establishments employing 2,000 to 3,000 persons there are two. Larger institutions may have an additional paid trade union official per 1000 workers. Committees representing more than 1,500 trade union members in the individual shop of a large plant may employ one paid official. Most duties of a trade union committee are divided among its members, who perform them on a voluntary basis outside of working hours.

Each trade union committee sets up commissions or councils to handle specific assignments; growth in the number of these bodies has matched the expansion of trade union activities. The social insurance council, which functions in all enterprises with 100 or more workers, is one of the most important of these bodies. Others supervise factory restaurants and subsidiary farms, assume responsibility for housing, education, recreation, workers' theatricals, choruses and other cultural activities. Supervising the garden program, which developed on such a wide scale during the war, and assisting disabled war veterans to find suitable jobs are among the newer assignments. By serving on these commissions, a large proportion of the trade union membership is drawn into its wide range of activities.

All trade union elections are conducted by secret ballot. These include elections for works and shop committees and group organizers in an enterprise, for delegates to district, city, *oblast* (region) and Republic trade union conferences, and for members of the All-Union or Central Committees of the various trade unions. The trade union congress is the highest authority; delegates attend from each Union Republic, *oblast* and *raion* (district). Congresses consider matters of general interest and elect members to the All-Union Central Council of Trade Unions.

The plenary session of the AUCCTU elects a presidium and a secretariat to carry on its year-round activities. The present chairman of the AUCCTU secretariat is Vassili V. Kuznetsov, who headed the Soviet labor delegation at the World Trade Union Congress, was a member of the Soviet delegation in San Francisco and headed the Soviet trade union delegation which recently toured the United States. Under the direction of the secretariat are a number of departments dealing with particular branches of trade union activity.

The 1945 budget of the AUCCTU was 1.9 billion rubles. Income is derived principally from membership dues, which are fixed at one percent of earnings. Of expenditures totalling 1.8 billion rubles for the year, 1.2 billions were allocated to education, recreation, physical culture and financial assistance to needy trade union members.⁶ Since

⁶ *Trud*, May 25, 1945.

1938, the considerably larger social insurance expenditures have been included in the State budget which provided 10.1 billion rubles for this purpose in 1945.

WAGES AND PRODUCTION

On the basis of national wage and hour legislation, Soviet trade unions help draw up agreements on wages and working conditions. The general rates are negotiated by the union's Central Committee and the industrial commissariat concerned. Application of these rates and conditions within an enterprise is based on agreements between the union and management. The unions then supervise fulfillment of these agreements through wage departments of their Central Committees and, in each enterprise, through wages commissions of the Works Committees.

Since the trade unions encourage operation of the piece-work system wherever possible, an important function of these commissions is to calculate wage scales for their own unit. In determining these scales, increases in labor productivity and quality of output are taken into consideration. The wage commissions cooperate with the management of their enterprises in setting up and revising job norms. They also make a comparative check on wages paid for different jobs and may recommend adjustments to the Works Committee. Wage Commissions must also determine whether the production record in the factory justifies the total wage bill.

Grievances are submitted to a special body—"the Rates and Conflicts Commission," on which management and the union have equal representation. The sittings of this commission are open to workers and they may take part in the discussion. However, the decision rests with members of the commission, and it must be arrived at not by voting but by mutual agreement. If no agreement can be reached, the case is taken to court. An interested worker or management disagreeing with a decision of the Rates and Conflicts Commission may appeal to the presidium of the central or regional trade union committee, which alone has the authority to cancel the commission's decision and to request a re-examination of the case. If management refuses to submit to a decision reached by the commission, that decision can be enforced by the court.⁷

The duties of a wage commission, as approved by the AUCCTU presidium on April 28, 1940, also cover the study and introduction of improved working methods. This is accomplished in a number of ways, especially by organizing socialist competitions, efficiency courses, lectures, and exchanges of experience among the most efficient workers.

⁷ *Trud*, November 16, 1945.

Production conferences are called at the factories to consider means of eliminating waste time and spoilage. Workers are encouraged to introduce labor-saving devices. Their recommendations are presented to the management, and it is the duty of the wage commission to follow through on their final disposal.

Socialist competition, an outstanding phase of many Soviet production campaigns, was of particular importance during the war as both the expression and the means of achieving the tremendous production increases required to meet military needs. These competitions usually are conducted among individual workers and groups in a shop, among shops and entire factories in the same field. The first All-Union Socialist Competition took place during the war. Launched in the spring of 1942 by workers in the metallurgical, aircraft and tank industries, the competition spread to all other industries, also to transport and agriculture.

The role of the trade unions in promoting socialist competition was one of the major topics discussed at the twelfth plenary session of the AUCCTU in March 1944. The delegates recommended that these contests, previously restricted to primary production workers, be extended to those in auxiliary plant operations. Competition among individuals in different trades was also advocated. It was decided to award such titles as "best engineer" and "best turner" to winners of such events, and to post their names on factory honor boards.

Through their advocacy of improved techniques and more efficient organization of production, the trade unions have contributed in many ways to the rising labor productivity of Soviet industry. An example is their sponsorship of plant inspections of methods of organizing production systems. The first of these inspections took place in June 1943 at a pipe mill in the Urals. Many similar inspections, supplemented by discussions of production processes by workers and efficiency experts, have followed; they include a series arranged at the end of 1943 in 60 percent of all the USSR's armament plants. Improvements in labor organization, with consequent saving in manpower, have resulted.

An older institution is the production conference, which takes place in the factory with management participating. Works and Shop Committees call these conferences regularly by trades, by shops or shifts, or by production groups. In addition, a production conference for the entire plant is convened monthly. Proposals for improving production are submitted by individual workers, talked over with the plant management and adopted at these conferences if they have the necessary merit. Production plans are also considered at length and matched against performance.

Through production conferences and public inspections, Soviet workers have introduced many inventions and efficiency proposals. Acceptance of the proposals, largely stimulated by the unions, has resulted in enormous savings in rubles and raw materials and also in the large-scale re-assignment of machines and skilled workers to other jobs where they are urgently needed. The AUCCTU recently instructed production conferences or general meetings of factory collectives to set up commissions for the purpose of encouraging this type of initiative.⁸

SOCIAL INSURANCE PROGRAM

Self-government by the insured is one of the basic principles of Soviet social insurance. The trade unions at first played an important part in supervising the system, and have been in complete charge of its administrative machinery since 1933. The general direction of the system is the responsibility of the AUCCTU's social insurance department.

This department drafts legislation, publishes the rules and regulations approved by the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR, prepares the national social insurance budget and directs the activities of the individual trade unions in this field. The Central Committee of each trade union has a social insurance section to administer benefit payments, prepare its budget and the like. The local administrative unit is the social insurance council of the Works Committees, and it performs the following duties:

- Computes workers' benefits on the basis of existing legislation and sickness certificates. (Benefits in cases of sickness and other temporary incapacity for work, funeral benefits, supplementary grants for children, and the like are included.)

- Institutes measures for the improvement of health conditions and for the development of preventive medicine.

- Arranges for visits by trade union members to sick colleagues and furnishes any extra aid which they require.

- Arranges for accommodations in sanatoria and rest homes, and checks upon the food they serve.

- Exercises some supervision of the treatment of union members in hospitals and clinics, and cooperates with the administration of rest homes and sanatoria.

- Cooperates also in the establishment and supervision of nurseries, kindergartens and summer camps, and provides accommodations for children of trade union members in these institutions.

- Assists pensioned workers in association with the medical commissions which determine, and the social insurance offices which pay pensions to invalids, the aged and other individuals.

- Assumes a continuing responsibility for improving social services to the insured.

⁸ See *Trud*, January 13 and February 10, 1945.

In addition to the social insurance council each trade union group elects an insurance delegate. He is expected to keep abreast of social insurance legislation and to advise his colleagues of their rights and obligations. In some respects, his daily activities resemble those of a social worker in the United States.

In addition to rest homes and sanatoria functioning under the health commissariats, economic organizations and enterprises, the Soviet trade unions directly maintain a large number of these institutions. Of the 662 rest homes and 231 sanatoria which the unions were operating in 1941, 254 rest homes and 68 sanatoria remained intact at the war's end. War-wrecked institutions and those commandeered for military service are being restored with Government aid. A total of 460 trade union rest homes and sanatoria were scheduled to be back in operation by the end of last year; these institutions were called upon to provide accommodations for 750,000 persons in 1945. Last year, trade unions also operated 400 night sanatoria at industrial enterprises where run-down workers could rest overnight and get special care. The unions are in complete charge of the organization of summer camps for their members' children. Meeting in Moscow in March 1945, the Thirteenth Plenum of the AUCCTU instructed these camps to provide accommodations last summer for 1,600,000 children.

SAFETY MEASURES

The trade unions are in complete charge of factory inspection. They control safety and hygienic measures, distribute work clothes, regulate hours and special working conditions for pregnant women, adolescents and the disabled. In addition to the regular factory inspectors, trained and appointed by the union's Central Committee, each Production Group elects a "public inspector." Moreover, labor inspection commissions attached to the Works Committees supervise the enforcement of safety rules. According to a report published in *Trud* last September 5th, the latter committees and management jointly determine how money allocated for safety measures and improvement of working conditions is to be used.

Regulations issued in August 1944, set up a special category of public inspector entrusted with the protection of the large number of teen-age workers who came into industry at the height of the war emergency. He is elected by the minors in his shop or factory, and functions with the guidance of the chairman of the labor inspection commission.⁹

As already indicated, trade union activity to improve the living conditions of Soviet workers has steadily increased. The AUCCTU's

⁹ *V Pomoshch FZMK Profizdat*, Moscow, 1944.

thirteenth plenary session passed a resolution urging all trade union organizations to "develop their activity affecting the general welfare of the workers, keeping in mind that satisfaction of the daily needs of the working population is closely connected with trade union efforts to increase labor productivity, to develop socialist competition and to organize large numbers of workers and employees for fulfillment and over-fulfillment of State plans."¹⁰

The same resolution draws special attention to housing. Central and local units of all trade union bodies are ordered to cooperate with the management of industrial enterprises and local Soviet authorities in improving housing conditions. The trade unions are expected to help in carrying out plans for the construction of dwellings and public buildings, in selecting appropriate housing types and in building of new homes. To encourage individual home building, they are required to help their members obtain building loans, materials and land. Works Committees must periodically inspect workers' communal housing, their fuel supply, bedding and other furnishings. Special housing commissions have been created by the unions.

Food was a major problem during the war. Trade union organs on various levels organized and supervised "workers' nutrition sections" in most factories, and helped in the operation of auxiliary farms, in the distribution of food and like measures. The Works Committees are responsible for proper management and distribution of groceries and meals in factory-operated stores and restaurants. Nutrition commissions attached to these committees must aid in the development of efficient service in these restaurants.

A trade union program to improve nutrition was one of three items on the agenda of the Twelfth Plenum of the AUCCTU in March 1944; its decisions were confirmed by the thirteenth session last year. Special trade union meetings called in most Soviet factories during 1944 submitted recommendations for improving their restaurants, shops and subsidiary farms. On the basis of numerous reports subsequently received, the Central Council was able to state that trade union supervision had improved these services.¹¹

Another important wartime program developed on the initiative of the trade unions, and one which will certainly become a permanent feature of Soviet life, was the wide-scale introduction of vegetable gardens, many planted to American seed. In 1944, 16.5 million workers had their own gardens, covering a total area of more than 3.3 million acres. During the first three years of the war, these gardens yielded more than 400 million tons of produce.

¹⁰ *Trud*, May 11, 1945.

¹¹ *Pravda*, December 22, 1944.

Gardening commissions appointed by the local Works Committees helped direct this program. With the aid of experts, the unions encouraged gardening through the publication of non-technical literature, through radio programs, special courses and conferences on gardening. The AUCCTU has a special committee to foster individual and group gardening and to direct the program centrally.¹²

In cooperation with management, trade union bodies are also required to take the necessary measures to increase the number of shops operated by their enterprises for the production and repair of footwear, clothing and household goods for their working personnel.

The trade unions pay particular attention to the living and working conditions of war invalids. On July 8th, 1944, the AUCCTU Secretariat instructed Works Committees to make daily inspections of the tools, lathes and other machinery used by disabled veterans. The committees also give the veterans any practical assistance which they may need in training for new jobs.

EDUCATION AND RECREATION

The important role played by Soviet trade unions in providing recreational facilities and programs of general and vocational education is well known. These activities center around the trade union club, which is established either by a Works Committee for workers of a particular enterprise and their families, or by an *oblast*, Republic or Central Committee of a trade union for its members in a particular town, city or *oblast*. The club's principal functions are to provide study facilities and popular lecture courses on science, literature and technology, to foster constructive use of leisure through "self activity" in the arts, and to arrange extensive programs of education and recreation for the children of its members.

Before the war, trade union organizations maintained 6,400 clubs, more than 100,000 clubrooms at places of employment, 28,000 libraries with a total collection of 43 million books and 12,000 movies. A good many of these facilities were destroyed during the war and are now being restored.

Recent trade union congresses and AUCCTU decrees have re-defined and given emphasis to work in education and recreation.¹³ The AUCCTU thirteenth plenary session last March adopted an important resolution calling for improvements in these programs. It directs the unions to call special meetings for general discussions of such subjects as economic plans, labor productivity, socialist competition and national

¹² *Trud*, February 22, 1945.

¹³ *V Pomoshch FZMK* op. cit.

and international trade union developments. Lectures and discussion programs on scientific topics are also to be arranged.

This resolution also suggests that all types of "self-activity" in the arts be encouraged among workers, and that choruses, dramatic groups and concert ensembles be formed in every enterprise. Works Committees and club administrations are requested to prepare special entertainment with the cooperation of these groups, and to assist the most talented of the worker-artists to obtain professional instruction.

The Central Committee of the Union of Soviet Artists is called upon for aid and advice. Central Committees of the trade unions, in collaboration with the Committee on Art Affairs of the USSR, are instructed to arrange for theater and concert performances in industrial centers, and to provide theater, concert and movie tickets at the factories. Workers' clubs must maintain projectors and films.

For young workers especially, the resolution calls upon Works Committees to arrange excursions and group visits to museums and exhibitions. Much attention is to be paid to youth education; trade unions, collaborating with the Commissariats of Education for their respective Republics, must increase the number of schools for young workers. More textbooks and other teaching materials must be made available to young workers and their hours must be adjusted so that they may conveniently attend these schools. Conferences, concerts and discussion programs, also more library facilities are requested for pupils of vocational schools. The AUCCTU plenum also ordered Works Committees to appoint commissions to direct these activities by June 1st, 1945. The monthly programs of these commissions must be approved by the Works Committees.

Special attention is to be paid to the training of persons who are directing the educational activities and recreation of Soviet workers. The AUCCTU instructed trade union schools in Leningrad, Moscow and Kharkov to arrange special courses for them. Moreover, Central Committees of trade unions were directed to organize courses and seminars for presidents of clubs, for librarians and group leaders.

Trade unions collaborate in various ways in the vocational training of young workers as well as in the re-training of war veterans and invalids. For example, the unions assist the Central Manpower Reserve Board in supervising vocational schools, in conducting medical examinations of their pupils and the like. Moreover, since much of the vocational training of young workers as well as veterans and war invalids takes place in the factories under the guidance of the most efficient workers, unions help organize and supervise this training.

The reconversion of industry to peacetime production has created its own problems in the USSR as elsewhere. Since Soviet industry returned to the eight-hour day last summer, the trade unions have had a special responsibility for promoting higher labor productivity through improved technique and worker training.

John J. Abt, Special Counsel of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, reported on his recent return from an on-the-spot study of Soviet trade union operations that when the cutback in hours took place, industry was required to guarantee the maintenance of wartime take-home pay for a period of two months. During this period, according to Mr. Abt, the local unions and management were directed to negotiate on the question of methods of maintaining take-home pay at this level. Wartime income taxes, which ranged from 10 to 30 percent of earnings, were repealed effective January 1, 1946—an important factor in maintaining take-home. To increase production and earnings, great importance has been attached to union-management collaboration to increase efficiency.

With reestablishment of the shorter working hours and holidays with pay, the importance of trade union activities has also increased in the cultural and recreational fields, in the improvement of living conditions and production of consumer goods. On September 7th, 1945, the Presidium of the AUCCTU urged particular attention to these matters.¹⁴

The following day, the AUCCTU instructed the Central Committees of the unions to collaborate with the commissariats in the preparation of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. The social insurance section of the AUCCTU was invited to submit to the AUCCTU secretariat a Five-Year Plan for the expansion of its program. The sections of the Central Council dealing with wages, safety, housing and living conditions, workers' supply, and sports and education were directed to establish contact with the corresponding sections of the State Planning Commission and to submit their own proposals, also to the AUCCTU secretariat. A special commission was invited to submit a Five-Year Plan for the reconstruction and building of sanatoria, rest homes, tourist homes, and the like, for the secretariat's consideration.¹⁵

An article in *Trud* last August 21st states: "The principle of democratic centralization, which is the basis of the organizational structure of Soviet trade unions, presupposes the election of all leading trade union organs and a regular accounting to the membership by those elected. Strict application of that principle is basic to the success of all the activity of the trade unions, representing the greatest mass

¹⁴ *Trud*, September 6 and 7, 1945.

¹⁵ *Trud*, September 8 and 15, 1945.

organization of working people." Emphasized repeatedly is the fact that at meetings of trade union organs on all levels, reports must be submitted on the various specific assignments given to members of trade unions, on work accomplished by the committees, as well as by local, regional and national bodies.

But perhaps the greatest interest and value of the Soviet trade union movement lies in the broad training and experience it provides in "functional" democracy. Through these unions, millions of citizens have the opportunity, indeed the responsibility, to solve their own problems, and to achieve self-government, in the broad sense of the word, in all matters affecting their daily life: problems of work and home, emergency situations such as accidents and sickness, also holidays and recreation, family welfare, the education of their children and of themselves. The solution of these and many other problems is within the province of the trade union member; moreover, since there are relatively few paid officials, a large proportion of the membership must help solve these problems. Many become "activists" or active trade union members, or assume a specific responsibility by serving on one of the many committees and commissions. With nearly 28 million Soviet citizens now members of trade unions, it is obvious that a large proportion of the population is acquiring valuable experience in self-government in the social and economic fields.

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Promoting a Better Understanding of Russia in our Schools

ROBERT J. PURDY

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SINCE PEARL HARBOR, Americans have centered their attention as never before upon two areas of the world which had previously been woefully neglected by the public schools of our nation. Russia and the Orient together absorbed an almost insignificant proportion of the time and attention of our pupils and teachers. That our national lack of information concerning our great neighbor, Russia, was so widespread as to be harmful to the maintenance of a sound and amicable relationship between the Russian people and ourselves has been forcibly brought to our attention during the past few years.

The great war just ended did much to dispel the ignorance and misinformation current in our thinking regarding our ally. Under the motivation of stirring, world-shaking events, we, Russians and Americans, learned much about each other in a short space of time. With the pressing motivation supplied by the war now dissipated, it is to a great degree our responsibility in the public schools to see that the knowledge and understanding which must be basic to mutual respect and confidence between our countries and peoples become a part of the educational experience of all our boys and girls.

I must express, however, my conviction that too much must not be expected of the schools. After all, we constitute but one of several media by which knowledge, understandings, skills, and attitudes are instilled in the minds of our youth. We are here addressing ourselves to the role of schools, not the role of education—which is a broader subject by far.

EDITOR'S NOTE: This address was delivered at a Conference on American-Russian Cultural Exchange which was held December 7 and 8, 1945, at the University of California, Los Angeles Campus under the auspices of Phi Beta Kappa Alumni in Southern California in cooperation with the Los Angeles chapters of the Phi Beta Kappa and Sigma Xi societies. Students and outside visitors—3,700 persons in all—attended the two open sessions and eight panel discussions, which were addressed by Soviet as well as American speakers—educators, scientists, writers, engineers, artists. It was the first conference of its kind on the West Coast . . . Dr. Purdy's address was one of six constituting the panel on "Education and Techniques of Communication." Other panels were devoted to medicine and public health, historical backgrounds in the Pacific Area, industrial and technological collaboration, agriculture, geography and natural resources of the USSR, literature and drama of Russia, motion pictures (the historical-biographical film), and musical life and education in the Soviet Union.

If our schools are to function more effectively in promoting and developing a better understanding of Russia, we in public school work immediately come face to face with two concrete necessities.

First, is the textbook—which, contrary to some opinion, is still a vital factor within most classrooms. Our textbooks have, in the past, presented a wholly inadequate treatment of the Russian country and people. This stands today as one of the real impediments to an adequate study of Russia in the schoolroom.

I might illustrate this point by telling you that just one year ago the Los Angeles City Schools requested publishers to submit textbooks on Russia and the Orient for our study and possible adoption. Being a large school system, we seldom find ourselves ignored by the publishing houses; yet for the study of Russia we found submitted to us *one* book. We adopted it.

Nor is our need in this respect simply for more space: pages, chapters and charts. We need, not books alone, but texts that are balanced and objectives that speak the truth in words and terms understandable to youth. Books that are free from prejudice upon all counts save a prejudice in favor of truth.

The publishers of America seem well aware of the necessity for new texts in this field. No doubt the next two or three years will see an improved situation in this respect. I would point out, however, that it is important for these new materials to give consideration to those pupils of poor reading ability and less than superior intelligence. At the ballot box their voice speaks with authority equal to that of any other man.

TEACHER-TRAINING FACILITIES NEEDED

Of equal importance is the necessity for adequate teacher training facilities with regard to Russia. Few social studies teachers have studied or have had an opportunity to study Russia with anything like the same intensity they have devoted to the study of the other countries of modern Europe. A reservoir of well-trained, adequately informed teachers is not only highly desirable; it is virtually imperative. To a real degree, I submit, the teacher-training institutions must assume responsibility in this regard.

For those teachers now in service in our schools it seems to me that such meetings as this, keyed directly, however, to the teachers' needs within her classroom, could offer much of real help. This would come under the heading of in-service training of teachers.

Now, what concretely can we do within the classroom?

Much of our study concerning other peoples has tended to emphasize

differences. Too often, in considering the ways in which other people differ from us, we have allowed the people to become typified in the minds of our youth by uncharacteristic peculiarities. This hinders, rather than promotes, real understanding.

I believe it is important for our young people to understand how the people of Russia are like us; and to see clearly the *reasons* for our similarities.

Conversely, we would be in error if we attempted to interpret Russia to our youth in terms of likeness alone. Differences do exist, and understanding can be achieved only through a general awareness of these differences and a knowledge of the factors—ethical, cultural, ethnological, religious, and economic—which have given rise to these differences.

It is impossible for me to speak for more than the schools of Los Angeles with regard to the specific objectives of our teaching in relation to Russia. We do allot definite time within our course of study for the study of Russia.

OBJECTIVES OF UNIT

The established objectives of our unit on Russia are these:

1. To develop a knowledge and understanding of the geographical immensity of Russia and the resulting complexity of her economic and domestic problems.
2. To develop an understanding of the people of Russia, their national leaders, past and present, their art, literature, and music.
3. To develop an understanding of Russia's place in world affairs, and of Russia's relationships with the United States.
4. To see in Russia, geographically and ethnologically, a natural link between the Occident and the Orient.

We expect our boys and girls to develop an understanding of the vast expanse of Russia and the richness of its resources. They learn much of the people of the Russia of today. They must know how greatly Russia has contributed to the art, music, and literature of the people of the world. They must understand something of the Russia of the past, since nations develop basically in terms of their national heritage.

They must recognize the national and international problems which confront the Russian people, and view with understanding the measures by which Russia seeks to solve these problems.

Finally, our boys and girls, and this is equally true of us all, must see how inextricably bound into the mutual understanding of Russia and America are the hopes, the dreams and the expectations of the peoples of the world.

Soviet Writers Discuss *A Bell for Adano*

JOHN HERSEY

I HAD HEARD for some time in Moscow of the group criticisms, known as "sittings," held by the Writers' Union. I had been told that not a single important work reaches the reading public before it has either been read out loud before a meeting of writers and critics, and then hashed over, or been read beforehand and discussed formally at such a meeting. I had heard that the criticisms at these sessions were unsparing, that friendship was not a censorship, that closest colleagues ripped each other's dearest works to shreds. I had heard, furthermore, that the writers accepted each other's criticisms in very good grace, that sometimes they followed the criticism, and that they went right on being friends after it.

Finally, I had hinted to some friends that I should like very much to attend a sitting. In a few days, to my delight, I was invited to one, and I immediately accepted. After I accepted I learned that the book to be discussed was *A Bell for Adano*.

We met one evening early this year, in a large reception room in the headquarters of VOKS, the All-Union Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries. We sat around a long oval table covered with green cloth—a table such as one imagines peace treaties are written around—and at each place there was a teacup and a wineglass. Plates of chocolates and cookies were scattered along the table. There were also pads and pencils at each plate. About twenty-five writers, critics, editors and representatives of VOKS were present.

I was asked if I would like to say a few words about the book. Then, one by one, the writers spoke about the book. The amazing thing to me

EDITOR'S NOTE: These two statements, by well-known American and Soviet writers, were originally delivered orally—Mr. Hersey's recently in New York, and Mr. Sobolev's earlier in Moscow, where Mr. Hersey was serving at the time as correspondent for a group of American magazines. Above are excerpts from his address at the First Conference on American-Soviet Cultural Cooperation, which took place in New York City on November 18, 1945 under the auspices of the Committees on the Arts, National Council of American-Soviet Friendship. Mr. Hersey's account of the Moscow "sitting" on his novel is followed by the observations of one of the writers who took part in that group criticism. Mr. Sobolev's statement was translated by Mary Modell from the stenographic transcript of the "sitting," which took place on January 24, 1945.

was the amount of thought and study those men, who were themselves very busy with the press of wartime writing, had put into the evening. Each person had read the book. Several had read it in English. I saw later a copy of the book that one man had read in English, and you could tell from the notes and interlinings how very much work it had been for him. He had written in translations of difficult words, and he had marked the end of each day's reading, and the markings suggested that he had spent a couple of weeks on the book. The others had read a Russian translation of certain chapters—a translation which the critic Kashkin characterized as "very unsuccessful."

Each man knew exactly what he was going to say; some had extensive notes. The remarks were wholly frank. The speakers seemed not the least inhibited by the fact that I was a foreigner. They catalogued the things they liked about the book specifically, exactly and, I may say, briefly. Then, at much greater length, they spared no words in attacking the things they did not like. The only assuagement to my feelings was offered by the novelist and short-story writer Leonid Sobolev, who sat to my right. Each time a Russian writer took a particularly heavy swing at something in the book, Sobolev would pour me another glass of vodka. As I had occasion to say the other day, I must confess that no single American professional writer has ever paid me the compliment of putting so much effort and consideration into lambasting anything I have written.

The criticisms of the men at that sitting were significant, it seems to me, on two levels. They showed, first, a great deal about the Soviet writer's conception of his job, and, second, they shed quite a lot of light on the average Russian's views on the subject with which *A Bell for Adano* is concerned—namely the building of the peace.

What Leonid Sobolev said:

I MUST TELL YOU that I have read your novel "A Bell for Adano" with great pleasure. It is very difficult for me to speak of the novel since I am not familiar with the true state of affairs in Italy.

I want to pay due tribute to the literary qualities of the book. At present I am not discussing what it narrates, but how it is written. I read English and American literature and I must say that inasmuch as I was able to understand it in the original, I have found in your book something new.

I would like to point out the laconic style of the author. You are able to depict man in a few words, on a small page of a novel. For instance,

in that chapter in which the artist of the novel shows the residents of the town the portrait of Major Joppolo and each one present asks the artist to emphasize in the portrait that feature of Joppolo which he or she likes best, each of these people is well and vividly depicted—each is a true character. It is a well written passage. The pages depicting the meeting of the Italian war prisoners with their families are excellent. These pages are poetic. The story of the death of the girl Tomasino's betrothed is well written; there is much that is novel in the theme, and its grim truth rings true.

In your book the people are visible, each person is visible, and that is undoubtedly a victory for an author. It seems to me that before this you have written other novels. Or perhaps those books have been written by a journalist, in a different manner. Perhaps you have been doing journalistic work for a long time, and this reflects upon the structure of the book. Your novel is a skillfully combined set of sketches on the life of the town of Adano and on the activities of Major Joppolo within it.

Apparently it is a general rule that a journalist writes in his own manner, and not in the manner of the writer, who is slow in his depictions. Thence, apparently, comes your unique style of writing, the laconic style and the desire to give a picture of man in several lines.

From the literary point of view the book is well written. The end of the novel, where the bell tolls in the town during Joppolo's departure, is written simply, musically, poetically. The Major and his story evoke in the reader pity for him and ill-feeling for General Marvin. Obviously, it is this that you tried to attain.

I want to say a few words about the contents of the novel.

You have spent about four months in Italy and covered many towns. I have a question to ask. Your novel creates the impression that in the Italian cities there are two distinct strata of men. One—the Fascists. It includes the top men of the Fascist Party, its henchmen in the town, some of the Italian officers. The other comprises the entire population of the town, including those who did not fare so very badly under fascism: court clerks, big merchants, the owner of a sulphur plant.

According to your novel, no sooner did the English and American troops arrive in Italy and no sooner did the fascist rulers disappear from this place than the remainder of the population welcomed its liberation from the fascist regime. The entire population seems well-disposed to the army of liberation. I am interested in learning—is it true that among the inhabitants of Adano there was not one man who would not be well-disposed toward the fascists, who would not in one way or another be connected with them?

It would then appear that the only thing necessary was to remove the

fascist rulers who oppressed the population of the town and not a trace of fascist influence would remain. As if the entire population of Italy had only been waiting for twenty-two years for that moment when the fascists would be taken away from them, and as soon as they were taken away the entire population began to think along different lines. Is it possible that twenty-two years of the fascist regime left no impression upon the psychology of the Italians, on their mode of living, on their relations to one another and, finally, on their political outlook?

Your novel contains many types of Italians—landowners, store-keepers, fishermen, government employees and small clerks, such as the town-crier and the doorman; 14 or 15 persons pass through the entire novel. From this entire gallery of types of the town of Adano, only two are somehow connected with the fascist regime—the former mayor of the town, Nasta, and the man who prevails upon the people to give up the plan to raise the sunken ship.

It is true that I have not been in Italy, but I have been in the liberated localities of the Soviet Union—in Belorussia, in the Crimea, in Odessa. The great majority of the population liberated by us, a population which lived in German captivity, in the environment of the “new order,” remained Soviet people. But during the two years of occupation, even among our people some changed, ceased to be Soviet people in that sense in which we understand it, ceased being patriots of their country, were caught on the fascist hook. And I shall never believe that in Adano, which was liberated by the American army, only two pro-fascists remained and the rest of the population, in its entirety, fully understood the meaning of the word freedom, that they had been irked by the fascist regime and dreamed of liberation from it.

And when I think of this, the conduct of Major Joppolo seems to be a sample of the conduct of an idealist, who is detached from life.

Of course, you have the right to create a man as you would want to see him. I was also young, and I also wanted all people to be good, attractive. Of course, at times, I saw all sorts of injustices and I also wanted very much to find the ideal man, who would perform only ideal deeds.

In your novel it is exactly like that: the ideal man performs ideal deeds. But what happens is this: the deeds which he performs because of the goodness of his heart, because of his—I should say—sacred concept of the word “democracy”, do not coincide with the truth of real life.

Let us recall Mayor Nasta. He is brought to the town by the Italians themselves, and they demand of Joppolo that he be punished. Apparently, Nasta has caused much trouble to the inhabitants of the town of Adano—they beat him, they torment him, they are ready to kill him.

And what does Joppolo do? He evolves an extremely clever punishment for him, he compels him to appear each morning before the sergeant to confess his sins. It is artistically and wittily written. But this seems strange—Mayor Nasta is a prominent fascist, and everyone, including Joppolo, knows it; yet this fascist calmly walks through the town and has a chance to do his dirty work. Of course, I am not saying that Joppolo should immediately grab him by the scruff of the neck and put him behind bars. What for? Perhaps that is not even necessary. But Joppolo's confidence in a dangerous enemy seems strange. Did he really intend to "re-educate" this old fascist? I think that he is no more capable of being re-educated than the executioner of Maidanek.

We in the USSR consider that literature generalizes a great deal. At times this involuntary generalization does not at all lead to what the author wants to say or prove. And here is what has come about—Joppolo is associated in our minds with those who speak of the possibility of re-educating the fascists. A few days ago *Pravda* had an interesting article on this subject—on a "school for policemen" in the West where, allegedly, through two or three months of "education", the SS men of yesterday are converted into meek lambs who maintain order in the German towns occupied by the Allied forces. And it seems that Joppolo is attempting this very same thing—and the result is a fiasco. Nasta, who has been a fascist, remains a fascist.

In our literary work there are occasions when the literary image created by us begins to live in the book by itself, begins to grow and set against the author's will, and if you do not watch him he will begin to do things in the book which the author did not want him to do at all. You have endowed your Major Joppolo with the wonderful qualities of a man who has a sacred attitude toward the principles of democracy. And desiring to create in him an ideal democrat, you have forgotten that reality brings into the idealized conception of itself its own at times cruel, amendments. Of course, I am far from the desire to "teach" you, —I am merely expressing my thoughts, as a writer. It seems to me that Joppolo began to act in the novel too freely and you have let him out of your hands somewhat. . . .

I liked the daring of your book. The novel contains an American general—Marvin. Great literary courage was required to depict this character in such a manner. In your book Marvin is the only representative of the command, the only outstanding military man. He is depicted in the book alone—and that is a dangerous thing. According to literary rules, one man represents the typical characteristics of his stratum of society when he appears in a book alone. And it may happen that the reader will think to himself, "Oh, the rest of them are also like this,"

and he will decide that all generals of the American army are just like this . . . You do not contrast Marvin with a single big military man of different qualities. And what happens?

This is what happens. Joppolo, because of his excellent qualities of an ideal democrat, attracts the entire population of Adano. Even Tomasino, the anarchist, who does not like any rule, recognizes him. In other words, the entire town loves Joppolo. He is beloved by the two soldiers, who out of affection for him, managed to smash an Italian home.

But who does not love him? He is not loved by Marvin, nor is he loved by the second officer in the novel—the captain of the military police. The latter treats him with irony, and with a clear conscience reports that Joppolo has rescinded Marvin's order. This same captain is far from perfect: he is an inane officer; he is vulgar, thoroughly indifferent to the town of Adano and to its population and, it would seem, even to the principles of democracy itself.

So it appears that Major Joppolo, a non-professional officer, is contrasted with a professional officer who does not at all share his idealistic concepts of democracy.

Here is what the reader is faced with: In the novel Major Joppolo, a democratically inclined, non-professional American officer, is drawn into the war; see how he conducts himself in the war, how gently he treats the Italians, how he endeavors to teach them the principles of democracy. And here are the professional officers—an inane captain of the military police, and even a general; see how indifferent they are to the lofty problems of liberation. The sum total is that the professional military officers greatly differ from Joppolo. One must only recall Marvin's episode with the mules, or his game on the mahogany table, his contempt for the Italians, and so forth.

The comparison is an unfavorable one for the professional officer. And worst of all, at the end of the novel General Marvin recalls Joppolo from Adano. And if one should supplement the novel—after its excellent pages with the pealing of the bell—what would one get? It would appear that after its Amgot major leaves the town, its happiness is gone.

It seems to me that this happened because of an error in the composition of the novel. I would like to hear what you think of it and why such an impression was created.

I shall close with the confirmation that your novel is read with great interest because of its literary merit and because of your ability to depict people and life vividly, and also because this book gives much that is new for the comprehension of the war in the West.

Recent Changes in the Political Geography of the Soviet Union

THEODORE SHABAD

Cartographer and Consultant on Soviet Geography.

THE DYNAMISM inherent in the Soviet administrative structure continued to manifest itself during the difficult period of the war. Administrative units ranging from the tiny *selsoviets* (village soviets) to the huge *oblasts* (regions) were created, altered or again abrogated, keeping the political map of the USSR in constant flux. Beside these routine changes, however, the war years witnessed the nearly unprecedented liquidation of five autonomous republics and regions, the territories of which were either distributed among the neighboring areas or transformed into *oblasts* of strictly administrative character. Finally, as a result of territorial transfers in 1944 and 1945, the Soviet Union acquired lands in both Europe and Asia which have been formally incorporated into the country's administrative system.

The present administrative-territorial organization of the Soviet Union was officially announced with *Pravda's* publication on October 17, 1945 of a list of election districts for the entire country. This list, the most recent and authoritative available, was prepared in connection with the elections this month to the Supreme Soviet.

The Soviet Union is primarily a federation of 16 Union Republics, of which the Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (RSFSR) is by far the largest. Its territory, extending from Leningrad to the Bering Strait, is divided for administrative purposes into *oblasts* (regions) and *krais* (territories). Some of the areas of the RSFSR which are occupied by smaller national groups have been designated as Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republics (ASSR). The large administrative divisions, the *oblasts* and *krais* are identical in Soviet terminology, except for the fact that only the latter includes within its area the Autonomous Oblast (AO) which is a secondary type of autonomous unit. (The single exception to this rule is the Primorsk Krai or Maritime Territory, which has no autonomous unit.) *Oblasts* and *krais* may both contain National *Okrugs* (Areas), the lowest type of autonomous unit.

Of the remaining Union Republics, the five Central Asian republics, (Kazakh, Kirgiz, Uzbek, Tadzhik and Turkmen SSR), as well as the

~LEGEND~

BOUNDARIES

- UNION REPUBLICS
- OBLASTS and KRAIS
- AUTONOMOUS UNITS

ABROGATED AREAS 1941 - 1945

- A. GERMAN VOLGA A.S.S.R.
- B. KALMYK ASSR.
- C. KARACHAYEV AUT. OBL.
- D. CHECHEN-INGUSH ASSR.
- E. CRIMEAN ASSR.

100 0 100 200 300
SCALE OF MILES

INDEX OF AREAS NOT NAMED ON MAP

1. MOLDAVIAN SSR
2. AZERBAIDZHAN SSR
3. GEORGIAN SSR
4. ARMENIAN SSR
5. ABKHAZ ASSR
6. ADZHAR ASSR
7. CHERKESS A.O.
8. DAGESTAN ASSR
9. KABARDINIAN ASSR
10. KOENIGSBERG OKRUG
11. KOMI-PERMYAK N.O.
12. NAKHICHEVAN ASSR
13. NORTH-OSSETIAN ASSR
14. TRANS-CARPATIAN OBL.



Ukrainian and Belorussian SSR are divided into *oblasts*. The three Baltic Republics (Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia) are divided into *uyezds*, which in turn are subdivided into *volosts*. (*Uyezd* and *volost*, administrative terms used in the old Russian Empire, are no longer employed in the rest of the USSR, but since the Soviet Government did not materially change the administrative set-up of the Baltic States after their incorporation into the Soviet Union, these two obsolete terms have continued to be used.) The other small Union Republics (Moldavian, Karelo-Finnish, Georgian, Armenian and Azerbaidzhan SSR), as well as the various *oblasts*, *krais* and the three types of autonomous units, are all subdivided into *raions* (districts). The *raion* is the basic administrative unit in the USSR (with the exception of the Baltic Republics) and may be said to correspond to a county in the United States.

This administrative set-up is unique not only in its complexity, but also because it is constantly being reorganized. This permanent state of flux follows two parallel lines of development: 1) the organization of national groups into autonomous units; 2) the distribution of territory necessary to insure the highest efficiency in the expansion of economic regions. Examples of both types of changes will be given in the course of this article.¹

ABROGATION OF AUTONOMOUS UNITS

The German Volga ASSR, the first autonomous unit created in the USSR, was also the first to disappear from its map. It was abolished in September 1941 following the disclosure of diversionist activities among its German population. Established as the German Volga Workers' Commune in October 1918, shortly after the Bolshevik Revolution, it had been raised in 1923 to the status of ASSR and had rapidly developed into a prosperous national unit. In 1941, its territory was divided between the Saratov and Stalingrad Oblasts of the RSFSR.

This action was accompanied by the disappearance of most German place-names. Marksshtadt was shortened to Marks and Unterwalden Raion was translated to Podlesnovski Raion. Other changes included the introduction of standard Soviet appellations, such as *Krasno-armeiski* (Red Army), *Sovetski*, *Komsomolski*, *Pervomaiski*, (First of May) and the like. The population at the 1939 census was 605,000, and the area covered 10,500 square miles.

In 1943, after the Germans had been defeated at Stalingrad and driven out of the Caucasus, the Kalmyk ASSR south of Stalingrad, and the Karachayev Autonomous Oblast, a small Caucasian mountain area at the

¹ For a detailed historical analysis of this development, see J. A. Morrison's article, "The Evolution of the Territorial-Administrative Structure of the USSR," in the *American Quarterly on the Soviet Union*, Vol. I, No. 3, Oct. 1938, pp. 25-46.

foot of Mt. Elbrus, were also liquidated. Established as an AO in September 1920, and raised to an ASSR in October 1935, the Kalmyk unit had a population of 220,700 in 1939, and an area of 28,700 square miles. The predominant national group consisted of 130,000 Kalmyks, a people of Mongol origin. The territory of the republic was distributed among Stavropol Krai, Stalingrad and Rostov Oblasts, and the newly-formed Astrakhan Oblast. The capital Elista, a new city, was transferred to Astrakhan Oblast and renamed Stepnoi. Other places were also given Russian names.

The Karachayev Autonomous Oblast, abrogated at about the same time, was the smallest autonomous unit to suffer this fate. Its area was 3,125 square miles, and the population was 149,000 (in 1939 census). It had been part of the Karachayev-Cherkess Autonomous Oblast since January 1922, and in April 1926 had been declared an independent AO. At the time of its liquidation, the northern half of the territory was incorporated into Stavropol Krai of the RSFSR; the southern half was absorbed by the Georgian SSR. The former capital, Mikoyan-Shakhar, was given a Georgian name, Klukhori. As a result of this cession, the territory of the Georgian SSR for the first time extends a considerable wedge onto the northern slopes of the Caucasus Mountains.

In late 1943 or early 1944, the Chechen-Ingush ASSR was abolished. This republic, situated at the site of the rich Grozny oil fields, occupied an area of 6,062 square miles. Its population of 697,000 included 407,600 Chechens and 92,000 Ingushetians. Its long history of national development dates back to November 1922, when the Chechen Autonomous Oblast was established. This unit was combined in January 1934 with the Ingush Autonomous Oblast (created in July 1924) to form the Chechen-Ingush AO. The latter was raised to the status of an ASSR in December 1936. When this was liquidated, the area was incorporated into the newly-formed Grozny Oblast. However, small strips of territory were also ceded to the North Osetian ASSR and the Dagestan ASSR. Here again name-changes were effected to remove the linguistic identity of the Chechen-Ingush national group.

In the summer of 1945, the Crimean ASSR was abrogated, but no transfer of territory accompanied this action; the area became *in toto* the Crimean Oblast of the RSFSR. Changes of names of Tatar origin preceded the Crimea's change of status. Russian place-names were introduced as early as December 1945. Balaklava and Bakhchisarai, the only remaining major Tatar place-names, probably owe their continued existence to their fame in Russian history and literature.

The liquidation of these autonomous units is without precedent in the

(Continued on page 32)

Political-Administrative Divisions of the USSR, October 1945*

I RSFSR (Moscow)

Krais—6

Altai (Barnaul)
incl. Oirot AO (Oirot-Tura)
Krasnodar
incl. Adyggei AO (Maikop)
Krasnoyarsk
incl. Khakass AO (Abakan)
Evenki National Area (Tura)
Taimyr National Area (Dudinka)

Primorsk (Vladivostok)
Stavropol
incl. Cherkess AO (Cherkessk)
Khabarovsk
incl. Jewish AO (Birobidzhan)
Chukot National Area (Anadyr)
Koryak National Area (Palana)

Oblasts—45

Arkhangelsk
incl. Nenets National
Area (Naryan-Mar)
Astrakhan
Bryansk
Chelyabinsk
Chita
incl. Aginsk Buryat-Mongol
National Area (Aginskoye)
(Simferopol)
Chkalov
Crimea (Simferopol)
Gorki
Grozny
Ivanovo
Irkutsk
incl. Ust-Ordyn
Buryat-Mongol
National Area Ust-Ordynski)
Kalinin
Kaluga
Kemerovo
Kirov

Kostroma
Kuibyshev
Kurgan
Kursk
Leningrad
Molotov
incl. Komi-Permyak
National Area
(Kudymkar)
Moscow
Murmansk
Novgorod
Novosibirsk
Omsk
Orel
Penza
Pskov
Rostov

Ryazan
Saratov
Smolensk
Stalingrad
Sverdlovsk
Tambov
Tomsrk
Tula
Tyumen
incl. Khanty-Mansi
National Area
(Khanty-Mansisk) and
Yamalo-Nenets National
Area (Salekhard)
Ulyanovsk
Velikiye Luki
Vladimir
Vologda
Voronezh
Yaroslavl

ASSR—12

Bashkir (Ufa)
Buryat-Mongol (Ulan Ude)
Dagestan (Makhachkala)
Chuvash (Cheboksary)
Kabardinian (Nalchik)
Komi (Syktyvkar)

Mari (Ioshkar-Ola)
Mordovian (Saransk)
North-Osetian (Dzauzhikau)
Tatar (Kazan)
Udmurt (Izhevsk)
Yakut (Yakutsk)

Tuva (Tuvian) Autonomous Oblast (Kyzyl)
Koenigsberg Okrug

II BELORUSSIAN SSR (Minsk)

Oblasts—12

Baranovichi
Bobruisk
Brest
Gomel

Grodno
Minsk
Mogilev
Molodechno

Pinsk
Polesye (Mozyr)
Polotsk
Vitebsk

III UKRAINIAN SSR (Kiev)

Oblasts—24

Chernovtsy
Dnepropetrovsk
Drogobych
Izmail
Kamenets-Podolski
Kharkov
Kherson
Kiev

Kirovograd
Lvov
Nikolayev
Odessa
Poltava
Rovno
Stalino
Stanislav

Sumy
Ternopol
Vinnitsa
Volyn (Lutsrk)
Voroshilovgrad
Zakarpatskaya (Uzhgorod)
Zaporozhye
Zhitomir

Political-Administrative Divisions of the USSR, October 1945*

IV KAZAKH SSR (Alma-Ata)

Oblasts—16

Akmolinsk	Karaganda	Semipalatinsk
Aktyubinsk	Kokchetav	South-Kazakhstan
Alma-Ata	Kustanai	(Chimkent)
Dzhambul	Kzyl-Orda	Taldy-Kurgan
East-Kazakhstan	North-Kazakhstan	West-Kazakhstan
(Ust-Kamenogorsk)	(Petrovsk)	(Uralsk)
Guryev	Pavlodar	

V UZBEK SSR (Tashkent)

Oblasts—9

Andizhan	Kashka-Darya (Karshi)	Samarkand
Bukhara	Khorezm (Urgench)	Surkhan-Darya (Termez)
Fergana	Namangan	Tashkent

ASSR

Kara-Kalpak (Nukus)

VI TURKMEN SSR (Ashkhabad)

Oblasts—6

Ashkhabad	Kerki	Mary
Chardzhou	Krasnovodsk	Tashauz

VII KIRGIZ SSR (Frunze)

Oblasts—6

Dzhalal-Abad	Issyk-Kul (Przhevalsk)	Talass
Frunze	Osh	Tyan-Shan (Naryn)

VIII TADZHIK SSR (Stalinabad)

Oblasts—5

Garm	Kurgan-Tyube	Stalinabad
Kulyab	Leninabad	

AO

Gorno-Badakhshan (Khorog)

IX AZERBAIDZHAN SSR (Baku)

Raions—62

ASSR

Nakhichevan

AO

Nagorno-Karabakh (Stepanakert)

X GEORGIAN SSR (Tbilisi)

Raions—59

ASSR

Abkhaz (Sukhumi)

Adzhar (Batumi)

AO

South-Osetian (Stalinir)

XI ARMENIAN SSR (Yerevan)

38 Raions

XII MOLDAVIAN SSR (Kishinev)

60 Raions

XIII KARELO-FINNISH SSR (Petrozavodsk)

24 Raions

XIV LITHUANIAN SSR (Vilnius)

26 Uyezds

XV LATVIAN SSR (Riga)

19 Uyezds

XVI ESTONIAN SSR (Tallin)

10 Uyezds

* Capitals or administrative centers of the various units follow in parentheses except where they are the same as the name of the unit.

Translations of administrative terms follow:

Krai = Territory Oblast = Region Okrug = Area Raion = District

Abbreviations:

RSFSR (or Russian SFSR)—Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic

SSR—Soviet Socialist Republic

ASSR—Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic

AO—Autonomous Oblast

history of the Soviet nationalities' policy. Only in the case of the German Volga ASSR has the Soviet Government made public the reason for the action. The official silence has given rise to considerable speculation as to the reasons for taking these radical steps. The question of whether the dissolution of these national groups is to be temporary or permanent also is a subject of considerable speculation. It should be mentioned that the abolition of the three Caucasian units is the only one of these actions which has real significance. The reason for the liquidation of the German Volga ASSR was obvious in the then-existing war emergency. The Crimean ASSR, although founded on the Tatar national group, never had any real basis for autonomy. The Tatars represented only 25 percent of the total population, in which the Russians were the predominant group, with 44 percent. Ukrainians, Jews and Germans represented respectively ten, seven and six percent of the population. Abrogation of the Crimean ASSR does not, in any event, alter the status of the Tatar ASSR, situated on the Upper Volga, as that nationality's major administrative unit.

OTHER MAJOR CHANGES

In January 1945, territory was transferred from the Estonian and Latvian SSR to the RSFSR. These transfers were based on ethnographical factors, the majority of the population of the areas in question being Russian. Estonia lost part of the Petseri Uyezd, which became Pechory Raion of the Pskov Oblast of the RSFSR. This district constituted the extreme southwestern corner of Estonia. Just to the south, Latvia ceded its northwestern corner to the Pskov Oblast of the RSFSR. The area around Kacanava became Kachanovo Raion, and the district surrounding the railroad junction of Jaunlatgale (or Abrene) became Pytalovo Raion. These transfers constituted the first changes of territory affecting these two Baltic republics since they were recognized as independent states by the Soviet Union in 1920.

Lithuania had already undergone its territorial changes, which however were in its favor, when in 1939 and again in 1940 it received strips of territory with a predominant Lithuanian population from the Belorussian SSR. These transfers included the much-contested historical city of Vilna which again became the capital of the Lithuanian SSR under its Lithuanian name of Vilnius.

Also early in 1945 the Karelo-Finnish SSR ceded its portion of the strategic Karelian isthmus to Leningrad Oblast in the RSFSR. This area includes the important towns of Vyborg (Viipuri) and Keksholm (Kaekisalmi), as well as the two large hydroelectric stations of Enso and Raukhiala used to supply the Leningrad industrial area. The RSFSR

thus controls the entire Karelian isthmus and holds an additional stretch of the Finnish Border.

In the Caucasus, the Kabardino-Balkarian ASSR ceded its southeastern corner to the Georgian SSR. This section, inhabited by the Balkarians, forms part of the wedge which the Georgian SSR has driven northward across the crest of the Caucasus. As a result of the loss of a large part of its Balkarian population, the Kabardino-Balkarian ASSR became the Kabardinian ASSR late in 1944.

In the Kyzyl-Kum desert of Central Asia, an area insignificant in population but large in area was ceded by the Kara-Kalpak ASSR to the Uzbek SSR. In August 1943, the Tamdinski Raion (center: Tamdy-Bulak) was incorporated into the Bukhara Oblast of the Uzbek SSR.

Aside from these territorial changes affecting nationalities, purely administrative reorganization took place in the Soviet Union. In the western RSFSR, the large Leningrad and Kalinin Oblasts were broken up into smaller *oblasts*, apparently to render more efficient the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the areas devastated by the Germans. Northeast of Moscow, and also in Siberia, new *oblasts* were created because of industrial expansion and population increases. In the Kazakh SSR also, with the rapid development of industry and mining, the number of *oblasts* rose from 11 in 1938 to 16 in 1945. Finally, the Astrakhan and Grozny Oblasts were created following the liquidation of the Kalmyk and Chechen-Ingush SSR.

Another noticeable feature of the new map of the USSR is the number of name-changes involving well-known cities. Beginning late in 1943 and continuing through 1944, the Soviet Government acted on the petition of the population of the cities concerned to change a few names of German origin. In the Leningrad area, Peterhof (Petergof) and Schluesselburg (Shlisselburg) became Petrodvorets and Petrokrepost, respectively. Oranienbaum, however, kept its name. Four of the cities named after Sergo Ordzhonikidze, one of the early Soviet leaders who died in 1935, were renamed during this same period. Some resumed their pre-Soviet names: Ordzhonikidze in the Donbas became Yenakiyev; Sergo, also in the Donbas, became Kadiyevka, and Ordzhonikidze-grad, near Bryansk, was renamed Bezhitsa. Vladikavkaz, which had previously been renamed Ordzhonikidze, is now called Dzaudzhikau, an Osetian name.

TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS

In accordance with the terms of the Finnish armistice of September 19, 1944 the Soviet Union received its first piece of territory acquired as a result of the last war. Finland ceded the Petsamo district, which she had acquired by the Treaty of Dorpat (Tartu) on October 14, 1920.

The district was renamed Pechenga Raion, with its administrative center moved from Pechenga (Petsamo) to Nikel, and was incorporated into the Murmansk Oblast of the RSFSR.

At the Big Three Conference of Berlin in August 1945, the Soviet Union was awarded provisionally the section of East Prussia north of a line passing just north of Braunsberg and Goldap. This area is now called Koenigsberg Okrug (Area) and has been incorporated into the RSFSR. It is separated from the RSFSR proper by the Lithuanian and Belorussian SSR. Thus far, no German place-names are known to have been changed.

On September 29, 1945, the Czechoslovak Government ceded the Carpatho-Ukraine (Ruthenia) to the Ukrainian SSR. It was incorporated into the USSR as the Transcarpathian (Zakarpatskaya) Oblast of the Ukrainian SSR. Its Czechoslovak administrative structure, dividing it into 13 districts, has been preserved.

By the Soviet-Polish agreement of August 16, 1945, the new Soviet-Polish boundary on the basis of the Curzon line was determined. The new border deviates from the Soviet-German line of September 28, 1939 in that it leaves to Poland the westernmost part of the Belorussian SSR including the cities of Suwalki and Bialystok, as well as the westernmost part of the Ukrainian SSR including the city of Przemysl. The central part of the 1939 line following the Bug River remained unchanged.²

Early in 1945, the Soviet Union acquired the Republic of Tannu-Tuva. This little country, the name of which is familiar to philatelists, was made the Tuvinian Autonomous Oblast, a rather unimportant status for a former People's Republic. However, the fact that the Tuvinian AO is not included in a *krai*, unlike the other autonomous *oblasts*, but is established directly under the jurisdiction of the RSFSR, somewhat enhances its position. The regional center is Kyzyl, which is also known as Kizil Khoto; and the region is divided into 16 *khoshuns* or counties.

Following the Soviet campaign against Japan, the USSR occupied and annexed the southern part of Sakhalin (Karafuto) and the Kurile island chain. These two areas were incorporated into Khabarovsk Krai of the RSFSR, but as yet have not been given a definite administrative status.

Besides these incorporated territories, the Soviet Union also came into administrative control of two extraterritorial areas. Under the Finnish Armistice of 1944, the USSR leased the Peninsula of Porkkalla-Udd, southwest of Helsinki, for the purpose of establishing a naval base. Under the recent Chinese-Soviet treaty, the two powers have assumed joint control over the naval base of Port Arthur and the Kwantung Peninsula in southern Manchuria.

² See text of treaty and map, pp. 62, 63.

MEET THE SOVIET COMPOSER

ERIC SIMON

Former member of the Moscow Philharmonic Orchestra (1935-1936) ; now clarinetist with the New York City Symphony and chamber music ensembles.

PROKOFIEV, SHOSTAKOVICH, KHATCHATURYAN—names well known in the world of art—rank high among contemporary composers. These Soviet musicians speak a language which is understood by all who are able to feel music. However, the conditions under which they live and create in this universal language differ considerably from those which are commonly associated with composers.

These conditions have been established on the premise that material security safeguards the composer's creative power. Disproving anew a notion already belied by such composers as Haydn, Brahms and Verdi—that hunger and frustration are incentives to the creation of great music—the leading composers in the USSR continue to turn out works of outstanding value while enjoying the fruits of success. Like most of their colleagues abroad, Shostakovich and a few other Soviet composers do some teaching in the conservatories, but not out of financial necessity. In the Soviet Union, composing is a full-time profession with bonuses in fame and official rewards which serve as a constant reminder of the composer's public responsibility for the creation of good music.

The recognized Soviet composers belong to composers' unions, of which there are 32 with an aggregate membership of 850. Of this total, 216 composers and 66 musicologists and critics belong to the parent Union of Soviet Composers. It was established in Moscow in 1932 to unify the activities of separate composers' societies of limited aims which were founded in the 'twenties, such as the Russian Association of Proletarian Musicians and the Association of Contemporary Music.

Members of this Moscow union include Myaskovsky, Gliere, and Prokofiev, who received their schooling in tsarist times, and Shostakovich, Khatchaturyan, Kabalevsky and Khrennikov who were educated in Soviet schools. Their styles are as different as one can expect the styles of composers in a single country to be. Although united by a community of aims and principles, each represents a different school, taste, or trend and maintains his own course of artistic development.

The union's professional standards are high; when it was founded,

half of the 300 applicants for admission were rejected. Although popular as well as "long hair" composers are accepted, popularity of one's music does not in itself entitle one to membership; thorough knowledge of musical theory is also required. Peter Zbursky, composer of "The Blue Kerchief," a song which became a great hit during the war, has been refused membership until he can meet the union's professional standards. (Incidentally, those of Zbursky's American colleagues who write only tunes and turn over the harmonization and arrangements of their songs to "specialists" could not pass muster either). A second prerequisite for membership is the submission of original compositions which reflect competence and promise.

The Union of Soviet Composers is not a trade union in the usual sense, but rather an association of free-lance artists which gives its members spiritual and material aid, the latter to the point of subsidizing their work through commissions for new compositions. From the beginning too, the USC has been active in popularizing the works of Soviet composers; in one year it sponsored 35 symphonic and 17 chamber music concerts wholly devoted to such work, most of it new. Another general function of the union is to keep its members' fingers on the pulse of the national life. This has been done by arranging with other organizations for groups of composers to visit Red Army units, collective farms, factories and other institutions. New impressions gained through such trips have inspired numerous compositions, some of permanent musical value; in turn, local musical life has been enlivened.

THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITTEE

As the USC program developed, composers throughout the country turned to it increasingly for advice and guidance as well as material aid. Meanwhile, the lack of organic ties between the Moscow union and the 31 others in union and autonomous republics came to be regarded as more and more of a drawback. For this reason, it was decided to call a congress of composers which would set up the administrative body for a new federal organization to be known as the Union of Soviet Composers of the USSR.

Preparations for the congress, subsequently interrupted by the war, were entrusted to the Moscow union's Organizational Committee, known as the *Orgkomitet*, which was founded in 1938. Thirty persons serve on this committee; half their number comprise its presidium. Reinhold Gliere is chairman and two other well-known composers, Aram Khatchaturyan and Isaac Dunayevsky, are vice chairmen.

The Orgkomitet has its offices in Moscow's eight-story apartment house, known as the House of Composers, where many composers live.

This is the general headquarters for USC activity. In addition to financial and administrative offices, the building has a concert auditorium, music library and reading room, restaurant and billiard room. In April 1943, the Government gave the *Orgkomitet* a state vegetable and livestock farm, picturesquely situated in the Ivanovo *Oblast* (region) near Moscow. A rustic music colony has been established; composers retire to the Ivanovo cottages to combine farming and leisure with creative activity. In 1943, Shostakovich and Khachaturyan wrote symphonies there while Gliere was writing a quartet; the following year, Prokofiev wrote his Fifth Symphony and a piano sonata in Ivanovo while Shostakovich completed a trio and quartet.

Besides functioning as the governing center of the Moscow union, the Organizational Committee serves for the time being as the guiding force of the USSR's creative musical life. In 1940 it sponsored a conference on operatic art which introduced 30 new Soviet operas. Sessions that followed in Kiev, Tbilisi and Leningrad were devoted to symphonic music. Prior to the war, too, the *Orgkomitet* arranged such events as competitions for composers and lecture-recitals. Novelties were introduced at weekly "Chamber Tuesdays" in the concert hall of the House of Composers.

The war brought the Organizational Committee the important new assignment of rallying musicians around the war effort. During the grim days of October, 1941, its members and other composers were evacuated to Sverdlovsk, Kuibyshev and other cities. Within a few months, however, they were back in the capital and busier than ever. The committee's wartime activities included providing composers with extra food rations and in some cases with living quarters. Some were virtually subsidized during the emergency so that they might continue their creative activity. Commissions for new works were stepped up during this period.

Some composers joined the army or navy or volunteered for local militia forces when the war started. However, they and other creative artists were among those specifically exempted from military service because the Soviet Government felt that they could make greater contributions to the national welfare by continuing their own work.

Responding to the need of the moment, Soviet composers wrote an enormous number of songs. Printed rapidly and in large editions, they were popularized by the radio and added to the repertory of artists performing at the front. Dunayevsky—sometimes called the Russian Irving Berlin—Blanter and other popular composers wrote most of these war songs. Leningrad composers were particularly active; 200 new songs and marches were entered in a single contest conducted

in that city during the siege. The Leningrad branch of the State Music Publishing House issued several song collections, most of which were inspired by the heroism of the besieged inhabitants.

The war also inspired composition of a higher order. Perhaps the two best-known examples are Prokofiev's opera based on Tolstoy's *War and Peace* and Shostakovich's Seventh, or Leningrad Symphony. According to information furnished by Leonid Sinyaver of the Union of Soviet Composers, the significant wartime output included an enormous number of vocal compositions of all types, 14 major orchestral works—11 of them symphonies—four operas, one ballet, seven string quartets, one quintet, two piano sonatas, a piano trio.¹

ACTIVITIES OF THE MUSIC FUND

With the Organizational Committee at the helm, activities of the Union of Soviet Composers are carried on by a department known as the Music Fund or *Musfond*, and four commissions. *Musfond* was founded in 1939, and has a branch or deputy representing each of the other 31 unions. Its functions embrace all the practical and professional services to composers and the administration of a general welfare program resembling that carried on by the regular Soviet trade unions. The creative aspects of the union's program are carried on by the commissions.

Through *Musfond*, composers are commissioned to write orchestral, chamber and choral music ranging from symphonies to songs. Generally, the composer submits his own project for such a work, but from time to time the initial suggestion comes from the union. It is reported, for example, that Prokofiev, who had been writing in other forms for 15 years, wrote his first symphony since 1929—the acclaimed Fifth—at the suggestion of the USC. These works are contracted for in accordance with an established scale. In 1944, *Musfond* gave composers 620 contracts totalling 2,517,000 rubles. The sums paid are not advances but outright allowances covering specified working periods. The composer subsequently receives payment from a music publishing house if his work is published as well as a fee for every performance.²

Soviet orchestras, opera companies and the Radio Committee have been giving composers an increasing number of commissions for new works. It is foreseen that as direct contracting by performing organizations develops, the number of *Musfond* contracts will decrease.

¹ On the basis of a personal investigation, John Hersey reports the total wartime output of Soviet composers as follows: 66 symphonies, 46 operas, 22 ballets, 150 orchestral suites, fantasias and overtures, 150 chamber-music compositions, 40 cantatas, and more than 400 lesser choral works. Olin Downes, writing in the *New York Times* on Dec. 23rd, 1945, states that at least 80 percent of the important music written in the western world during the war is by Soviet composers.

Besides commissioning new compositions, the Music Fund publishes them in its two music printshops, and distributes sheet music both by subscription and over-the-counter sale at its kiosks. *Musfond* maintains a staff of copyists who relieve composers of the tedious task of copying their new scores and extracting orchestral parts. Composers may rent or buy concert or upright pianos from *Musfond's* collection of 150 keyboard instruments. Another service provided under the general heading of "organization of production" is the financing of travel by the composers for such purposes as gathering folk tunes and other material for new compositions and attending first performances of their music. Under the heading of culture, *Musfond* supplies music to libraries, finances lectures and other educational activities for composers.

Under its general welfare program for composers and their families, *Musfond* operates shops for the making and repair of clothing and shoes, a polyclinic, ambulatorium and pharmacy, and also a kindergarten, infants' homes and children's camps. Accommodations are secured for them in health resorts and rest homes at a reduced rate. Sickness benefits to composers equal their average monthly earnings, and upon their death, their widows are granted pensions. The Music Fund builds and maintains apartment houses for composers.

Musfond's annual budget now exceeds 10 million rubles. Its income is derived from two sources. One is the yearly assessment of 60 rubles per union member. The other is the performance fee. It is collected out of the gross receipts of every musical performance on the following scale: $\frac{1}{2}$ percent per act of incidental music; 6 percent for performances of the classics; 2 percent per performance of operas, ballets and concert works by Soviet composers.

The composer's own rights to performance fees are protected under the Soviet Union's general labor legislation. Disputes or grievances may be taken to the courts, and are brought to trial without expense to the composer. The union provides him with free legal counsel to prepare and present his case. The copyright on music is retained by the composer and his heirs until 15 years after his death.

The four commissions of the Union of Soviet Composers are primarily concerned with evaluating new music and recommending it for per-

² John Hersey provides this concrete illustration of how this system of compensation works. Khatchaturyan received a stipend from *Musfond* for 18,000 rubles for the writing of his Second Symphony, which was completed in three months. (The average stipend for a symphony is 8,000 to 16,000 rubles, and the time usually allocated is six months). Khatchaturyan received a lump sum of 20,000 rubles from his contract with a publishing house. He also signed contracts with the Radio Committee and orchestras for the right to play his composition. A minimum of 200 to 500 rubles is usually paid for each performance. When Khatchaturyan was awarded a Stalin Prize of 100,000 rubles during the war, he returned the money with the request that it be used to build a tank. All Soviet composers contribute heavily to patriotic purposes and make large war bond purchases.

formance. The largest and most important of these bodies is the consultative commission, on which 32 persons serve with composer Yuri Shaporin as chairman. They meet weekly to hear and review new symphonic, operatic and chamber music. Works which are deemed worthy of inclusion in the programs of orchestras, opera companies, the Radio Committee and other performing organizations are brought to their attention. The performing groups assume all expenses in connection with the introduction of new works, and the composer receives the customary performance fee.

Composers of military marches and songs, also band and show music on martial themes, submitted their works to the union's war commission. Dunayevsky was chairman of this group of seven. In addition to evaluating this music and promoting its use, the commission arranged composers' trips to the front and advised student-composers in the armed forces.

Another commission is primarily concerned with the evaluation and introduction of music written for juvenile audiences or for performance by children, especially music students. Zara Levina, a composer of children's songs, is chairman of this group of five. New works which it recently recommended to music teachers include some piano pieces for beginners by Shostakovich, and 24 studies by Kabalevsky.

Boris Asafyev, a leading Soviet music scholar and critic, is chairman of the musicological commission. Its four members make critical analyses of the works of Soviet composers, prepare reports and arrange conferences on music theory and history. Some recent sessions were devoted to a discussion of the pentatonic scale and to analyses of the composition forms used by Soviet composers.

Works which are submitted to the consultative commission for evaluation are also performed regularly at general meetings of the composers. These sessions or "sittings" discuss both new works and general music topics. Where there are no strong individualities there is little difference of opinion, and without differences of opinion there can be no argument. But there are heated arguments at the composers' sessions. New opuses are thoroughly reviewed and criticized without reserve in the composer's presence. The praise, when considered due, is given equally without reserve.

Sergei Prokofiev's observations about Shostakovich's Eighth Symphony at a meeting held in the spring of 1944 during which this work was performed and discussed provide a good example of the nature of this composer-to-composer criticism. Prokofiev stated, "One of Shostakovich's chief merits, it seems to me, is that he is a thinking composer, reflective and ingenious, not in the pedantic sense but in the best, creative sense . . . As far as the form of the symphony is con-

cerned, it seems to me that in a work of such length the composer should exert himself to retain the attention of the listeners. After the second half-hour, the listener begins to demand something more effective in order to combat his fatigue. And it is just at this point that the slow fourth movement begins. It is written in the form of a *passacaglia* where first the theme is presented and then recedes into the bass while the counterpoint appears in the upper register. . . . This is an excellent form but Shostakovich was unable to find a sufficiently vivid counterpoint. . . . If the Eighth Symphony did not have this fourth movement but went directly into the final movement with its superb coda, if it did not have its second movement which is not new but is rather crude, but instead had only the first, third and fifth movements, I am sure there would be much less argument about it.”³

The purpose of these discussions is not to level off individuality but to raise standards of musical technique. Criticism of this type does not constitute an attack upon the composer's personal idiom but focuses attention upon problems of aesthetics which are of general validity, such as the discussion of “formalism” which followed *Pravda's* denunciation in 1936 of the Shostakovich opera *Lady Macbeth of Mtsensk*. This criticism was interpreted in some international art circles as an ukase to Soviet composers to write in a narrowly defined style, to avoid dissonances and be popular in a cheap way. From their own discussions at the time, however, these composers concluded that some of the eminently gifted among them, especially Shostakovich, had been identifying progress in art with an increasingly sophisticated and decadent manner, based on the style of certain Western masters who, while addressing themselves to a more and more specialized and selected audience, had lost touch with the broad circle of music-lovers.

The works of Shostakovich before and after 1936 would seem to indicate that Soviet composers were not being called upon a decade ago to change their personal style, their individual language, but rather were being reminded of their responsibilities toward their public. The intent would seem to have been to make them aware of the bonds which united them with a vast and ever growing audience, bonds such as had made possible the masterworks of Bach, Mozart and Beethoven. If the development of such men as Prokofiev, Shostakovich and Katchuryan may be accepted as evidence, the esteem and security which Soviet composers have gained by maintaining such ties have not curtailed their creative development.

³ *VOKS Music Chronicle*, April, 1944. Much of the information about recent activities of the Union of Soviet Composers was provided through VOKS in an unpublished report by Leonid Sinyaver.

Musical Education in the USSR

A. I. YAMPOLSKI

THE TRAINING and encouragement of musical talent, which has always flourished in Russian soil, has been receiving increasing attention from Soviet educational authorities. The long-range program of music education which they have developed has two principal objectives. One is to foster a broad musical culture, primarily by providing the younger generation with a general training in music at little or no cost. The second objective is to assure to all especially gifted Soviet children, through a definite pattern of education and subsidy, the possibility of a fruitful career in music such as relatively few managed to achieve in tsarist days by favor, sacrifice or deprivation.

Four networks of State music institutions—the seven and ten year schools, the institutes and conservatories—carry on this program. Policy-making for this integrated school system is the function of the Chief Administration of Educational Institutions of the Committee on Art Affairs attached to the Council of People's Commissars of the USSR. The same section of the All-Union Committee has direct jurisdiction over some of the leading music institutions, such as the Moscow and Leningrad conservatories and their affiliated schools. Other schools in the RSFSR and those in the other Union Republics are under the direction of the Art Committees under their respective Councils of People's Commissars.

CHILDREN'S SEVEN-YEAR SCHOOLS

Music education in the USSR usually begins in the children's seven-year music schools. Their principal function is to acquaint youngsters with the language and literature of music, to instill in them general appreciation and understanding of the art, and teach their pupils to play an instrument. On January 1, 1945, there were 331 of these schools with a total enrollment of 45,038.

Since instruction in these institutions supplements that in the regular schools, the curriculum of the former is limited to music and directly related subjects. Pupils study one of the following instruments: Piano, violin, viola, violoncello, double bass, flute, oboe, clarinet, native instruments and, in some of the schools, the harp. In addition, there are

EDITOR'S NOTE:—Based on an unpublished report by a Soviet professor of music, this article was translated by Joy Moss of the American Russian Institute's Research Staff.

classes in theory, solfeggio, orchestra, choral singing and music appreciation. Piano study is compulsory for students "majoring" in another instrument.

These schools single out exceptionally gifted children with professional potentialities and encourage their further study in the higher music institutions.

Many seven-year music schools offer special courses for adolescent and adult workers who wish to study music in their spare time. Most of these special students study voice or wind and native instruments.

Tuition in these schools ranges from 10 to 100 rubles the year, depending on parents' earnings, the size of the family and similar factors. Children of servicemen and war invalids are completely or partially exempt from tuition charges.

TEN-YEAR MUSIC SCHOOL

There are 14 ten-year music schools in the Soviet Union which provide a general elementary and high-school education combined with professional training in music. They prepare students for advanced study in the conservatories and for an eventual concert career or specialization in theory and composition. Children showing definite musical promise are accepted at the age of seven or eight. Under that age they are enrolled in preparatory courses and advanced to the first grade after a year or two if they measure up to initial expectations; otherwise, they are usually transferred to the seven-year music schools. The total enrollment of the ten-year music schools was 3,560 on January 1, 1945.

Music study includes the following: A specialty (always chosen by the pupil except for the study of voice and certain wind instruments such as the bassoon and trombone) also chamber ensemble, orchestra and choir classes, piano (for those not specializing in this instrument), solfège, elementary music theory, harmony, analysis of musical form, instrumentation, rhythm, music history and appreciation. Concert appearances are arranged periodically during the school term before both closed academic and general audiences.

The general curriculum is comparable in scope to that of the regular ten-year Soviet school, but emphasis is on the humanities rather than on the exact sciences. To permit more concentrated study in a shorter school term, classes are limited to a maximum of 15 pupils. To enable concentration on music, homework in other studies is virtually eliminated.

Pupils in these schools pay no tuition. Beginning with the fifth

grade, moreover, they receive monthly stipends ranging from 60 to 140 rubles, depending upon their grade.

MUSIC INSTITUTES

The USSR's 93 institutes of music prepare teachers for the seven-year music schools, and train orchestral musicians, accompanists, conductors of choruses and ensembles of native instruments. Last year's enrollment totalled 11,552 students ranging in age from 15 to 30. Registration in the vocal department begins at 18. Besides demonstrating talent for music, they must have completed seven years of general schooling and pass entrance examinations.

In the four-year course of study are general subjects, with stress on the humanities, and all the music courses offered in the ten-year music schools plus a course in composition. Emphasis is on the teacher-training program, and "field" practice is given under the guidance of leading Soviet pedagogues.

Voice departments, as well as those for wind, plucked and native instruments offer special courses for persons who have considerable musical ability but lack the necessary requirements for admission as regular students of the institute.

Tuition in the institutes is fixed at 200 rubles a year to all except war invalids, who pay no study fees. Promising students receive stipends beginning at 80 rubles a month and progressively increasing from year to year to a maximum of 140 rubles monthly.

THE CONSERVATORIES

The most advanced type of musical education in the USSR is provided in 20 conservatories, which turn out highly developed and versatile musicians who are performers or musicologists and also qualify as teachers. The conservatories, in which 3,845 students were enrolled last year, also are responsible for research projects in the history and theory of music, and for compiling texts and other teaching aids in the same fields.

The term of study in the conservatories is five years. To assure the best possible training, students receive individual instructions in voice or their instrument, also in composition, conducting and in the editing of scores and works on music. They attend lecture courses and have group study of harmony, musical analysis and other theoretical subjects. Under the supervision of faculty members, they give performances and do practice teaching.

The following chart indicates the principal departments of the conservatory, the type of musician each department prepares and the basic role each plays in Soviet musical life.

SOVIET MUSIC SCHOOLS: THEIR NUMBER, ENROLLMENT AND DISTRIBUTION BY UNION REPUBLICS
(*Figures of January 1, 1945*)

REPUBLIC	CONSERVATORY	PUPILS	INSTITUTES	PUPILS	10-YEAR SCHOOLS	PUPILS	7-YEAR SCHOOLS	PUPILS
RSFSR	5	1409	49	6290	3	982	182	18394
Ukraine	4	661	12	1583	4	774	72	12400
Belorussia	1	123	3	138	—	—	7	1350
Georgia	1	245	7	1128	1	249	20	4254
Azerbaïdzhan	1	195	3	494	1	492	10	1557
Armenia	1	141	2	294	1	273	4	1508
Turkmenia	—	—	1	77	—	—	8	—
Tadzhikistan	—	—	2	52	—	—	1	219
Kirgizia	—	—	4	47	—	—	1	86
Uzbekistan	1	146	1	149	1	254	9	1350
Kazakhstan	1	96	1	74	—	—	4	609
Moldavia	1	150	—	—	1	200	1	150
Estonia	1	105	—	—	1	294	4	480
Latvia	1	94	6	731	1	42	6	780
Lithuania	2	480	2	495	—	—	2	200
USSR (Total)	20	3845	93	11552	14	3560	331	45,038

Total Number of Schools 458
Total Enrollment 63,995

DEPARTMENT	GRADUATES' QUALIFICATIONS	THEIR BASIC ACTIVITY
I. Piano, organ	pianist, organist	Solo pianist or organist; ensemble performer; teacher of piano and piano and chamber ensembles; instructor in piano teaching methods in music institutes; concert-masters of opera theaters and studios.
II. Orchestra	solo performers on string and wind instruments and orchestral player	Similar in scope to I but in the field of orchestral instruments.
III. Voice	solo singer	Solo concert and operatic performer; voice teacher in the music institutes.
IV. Conducting	symphonic, opera and choral conductor	Symphonic, operatic or choral conductor; teacher of choral singing in music institutes.
V. Theory and Composition	composer, musicologist	Composer; teacher of music history and theory in music institutes; lecturer for concert organizations; specialist in music scholarship and publishing.

The conservatories in Moscow, Leningrad, Kiev, Tbilisi and Sverdlovsk offer post-graduate courses where teachers are prepared for all departments of the conservatories. These courses are open, on the basis of competitive examinations, to conservatory graduates who have completed two years' practical work in their special field. Postgraduate study is related to future pedagogical work in music history and theory. The study centers principally on the preparation of a thesis for the degree of Candidate of the Science of Arts which is conferred upon those completing the post-graduate course. Instrumental performers with the necessary qualifications for post-graduate work are also granted the opportunity to defend a thesis.

Tuition in the conservatory amounts to 500 rubles a year. Several categories of students who are not required to pay study fees include servicemen and members of their families, and generally students in difficult material circumstances. Good students receive living allowances from 141 to 210 rubles monthly, while the most promising of their number receive Stalin stipends amounting to 700 rubles a month.

The four different types of music schools described above, aggregating 458 in all, had nearly 64,000 students last year.

Research on Atomic Energy in the USSR

GERALD OSTER

Ph. D. in Physical Chemistry

WORLDWIDE PUBLIC attention has in recent months been centered on atomic power, a subject once reserved for restricted academic discussion. Today vast economic and social significance is generally attributed to the discovery that certain heavy elements, notably Uranium 235, undergo fission or splitting on bombardment with slow neutrons, a process which releases such reserves of energy per unit weight that serious consideration of this new energy source for industrial utilization is warranted. Two official reports¹ have admirably summarized the accomplishments of the United States and Great Britain in atomic energy. No such report has been released about Soviet progress in atomic research; there has been considerable dark speculation but little light on the subject. How far such a technologically advanced nation as the USSR has progressed in atomic power is a question of wide interest, to laymen as well as to scientists. This brief review of Soviet achievements in the field of nuclear energy attempts to give the answer insofar as it can be ascertained from Russian scientific literature.

It should be remembered that advances in this field are dependent on advances in the whole field of nuclear physics and in allied fields, especially electrical research² and physical chemistry.³

Nuclear physics research in the Soviet Union received a great impetus with the discovery in 1932 of the neutron by the English scientist Chadwick. However there were some Soviet accomplishments before 1932 which are of great importance. Notable was the use by D. V. Skobel'tzn in 1925 of a strong magnetic field in a cloud chamber. This enabled him to study the charge and energy of particles, particularly those induced by cosmic rays. In fact, Skobel'tzn demonstrated that associated

¹ H. D. Smyth, *Atomic Energy for Military Purposes*, Princeton, 1945 and *Statements Relating to the Atomic Bomb*, London, 1945.

² G. Oster, "Electrical Research in the USSR," *Journal of Applied Physics*, 16 121, (1945).

³ C. N. Hinshelwood, "Science in the USSR Physical Chemistry," *Nature* 156 283 (1945).

with cosmic rays are charged particles possessing tremendous energies of the order of several million volts. Another early Soviet discovery was that by L. V. Myssovsky, who in 1927 observed the tracks made by nuclear charged particles in thick photographic emulsions.⁴ This technique has been utilized to study the tracks of the fission products of uranium under neutron bombardment.⁵

By 1932, three major Soviet institutes were carrying on extensive nuclear research—the State Radium Institute and the Physico-Technical Institute, both in Leningrad, and the Ukrainian Physico-Technical Institute in Kharkov. Prior to this date there were only fifteen scientists working in this field in the USSR. These institutes have received generous financial support from the Government,⁶ in addition to a gift to each institute of one gram of radium.

In 1934, soon after Lawrence's development of the cyclotron in America, the State Radium Institute started construction of a cyclotron. A few cyclotrons have since been built and construction of very large cyclotrons has been continued during the war.⁷ A huge 4.5 million volt van de Graaff electrostatic generator was completed in 1937 by the Ukrainian Physico-Technical Institute. Soviet developments of compact electrostatic generators and large ion sources are particularly important in this connection.⁸

Construction of very powerful betatrons is now under consideration in the USSR.⁹ Of particular interest is the possibility of utilizing in a betatron Kapitza's impulse dynamo with which he obtained the highest magnetic field strength ever produced.¹⁰ As an example of coincidence in scientific effort, it is interesting to note that a Soviet paper¹¹ on the theory and some of the details necessary for the successful operation of the betatron appeared independently of Kerst's development of the betatron in the United States. The construction of betatrons for accelerating electrons with voltages higher than 100 million volts is particularly important in the light of observations on the splitting of

⁴ V. Veksler, L. Gronov and N. Dobrotin, *Experimental Methods in Nuclear Physics*, Moscow, 1940 [Russian]. Some of the chapters of this book are devoted to Soviet techniques in nuclear physics.

⁵ A. P. Zhdanov, and L. V. Myssovsky, *Comptes Rendus Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S.*, 25 11 (1939) and *Nature*, 143 794 (1939).

⁶ The Soviet Union before the war spent about one per cent of its national income on scientific research.

⁷ For example: *Journal of Physics* (USSR) 8 56 (1944). A discussion of the State Radium Institute cyclotron ion source.

⁸ For references, see the writer's review listed in footnote 2.

⁹ I. Tamm, "New Developments in High Speed Particles," *Priroda* No. 4, 24 (1943) [Russian].

¹⁰ J. Terletsky, *Journal of Physics* (USSR) 9 159 (1945). See also an important paper by V. Veksler, "A New Method of Accelerating Relativistic Particles," *Journal of Physics* (USSR) 9 153 (1945).

¹¹ J. Terletsky, "The Relativistic Problem of the Movement of Electrons in an Alternating Parallel Magnetic Field of Axial Symmetry" *Journal of Experimental and Theoretical Physics* (USSR) 11 96 (1941) [Russian].

nuclei by cosmic rays, a field of investigation in which Soviet scientists have made outstanding contributions.¹² In 1944, a State commission headed by the Armenian physicist A. I. Alichanian was set up to conduct extensive research in cosmic rays and to construct permanent cosmic ray laboratories on high mountain peaks.

Soviet theoretical physicists have made important contributions to the theory of the atomic nucleus. Ivanenko in 1932¹³ was the first to propose on well-founded theoretical grounds the present picture of the nucleus as composed of protons and neutrons. Statistical models of heavy nuclei¹⁴ have helped explain a number of properties of atomic nuclei. Another example of coincidence in scientific effort is the very important paper by J. Frenkel in 1939¹⁵ on an explanation of nuclear fission worked out independently by Bohr and Wheeler, who proposed a similar explanation at the same time.

There is abundant evidence¹⁶ in Soviet scientific literature of their knowledge of the energies associated with nuclear fission. Studies by Soviet nuclear physicists on the nuclear fission process include studies on the behavior of uranium under bombardment,¹⁷ the spontaneous fission of uranium,¹⁸ and the pair formation in uranium fission.¹⁹

Chemists have collaborated with nuclear physicists in the identification of fission products,²⁰ in proposing laws of conservation in nuclear "chemical" reactions,²¹ in studying the conditions for explosive nuclear reactions²² and in the separation of isotopes.

Studies on the separation of isotopes have been carried on for the past ten years in the USSR. In 1937, the Soviet Government established a commission to intensify research on isotope separations. A. E. Brodsky, a member of the commission, has conducted research on the

¹² A. Zhdanov, *Comptes Rendus Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S.*, 20 641 (1938); *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 1 51 (1939); *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. phys.*, 4 266 (1940) [Russian].

¹³ D. Ivanenko, *Nature*, 129 798 (1932). See also I. Tamm and D. Ivanenko, *Nature* 133 981 (1934).

¹⁴ J. Frenkel, *Phys. Z. Sow.*, 9 533 (1936). V. Cherdynstev, *Journal of Experimental and Theoretical Physics (USSR)* 8 1234 (1938) [Russian]; *Phys. Z. Sow.*, 13 170 (1938). L. Landau, *Phys. Z. Sow.*, 11 556 (1937). J. Frenkel and V. Cherdynstev, *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 2 55 (1940).

¹⁵ J. Frenkel, "Electrocapillary Theory of the Splitting of Heavy Elements by Slow Neutrons," *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 1 125 (1939).

¹⁶ For example: A. L. Leipunsky *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. phys.* 4 291 (1940) [Russian]. Leipunsky discusses the conditions under which a chain reaction (explosion) of slow neutrons and uranium takes place. See also the report on the nuclear physics conference held in Moscow, November, 1940, *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 4 276 (1941).

¹⁷ K. A. Petrazhak, "Ranges and Energies of Fragments in Fission of Uranium by Fast Neutrons," *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. phys.*, 4 301 (1940) [Russian] *Comptes Rendus Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S.*, 27 207 (1940).

¹⁸ G. N. Flerov, and K. A. Petrazhak, *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 3 275 (1940).

¹⁹ A. B. Migdal, *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. phys.*, 4 287 (1940) [Russian], *Journal of Physics (USSR)* 9 45 (1945).

²⁰ V. G. Khlopin, *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. chim.* No. 2, 319 (1940) [Russian]; *Journal of General Chemistry (USSR)* 11 1049 (1941) [Russian]; *Achievements in Chemistry (Uspekhi Khimi)* 13 181 (1944) [Russian].

²¹ S. Z. Roginsky *Bull. Ac. Sc. U.R.S.S. sér. chim.* No. 1, 13 (1940) [Russian].

²² J. Zeldovich, and J. Khariton, *Journal of Experimental and Theoretical Physics (USSR)* 10 29 (1940) [Russian].

separation of heavy water, an important material in atomic energy production, and on Uranium 235. In a paper in 1939,²³ Brodsky presents complete details of a pilot plant for the separation of heavy hydrogen and oxygen by thermal diffusion. A theory of thermal diffusion for cascade processes is also given. In a review paper in 1940,²⁴ Brodsky discusses the various methods of preparing heavy water including a successive stage electrolysis method. In 1942²⁵ he separated Uranium 235 by thermal diffusion of the hexafluoride of uranium and concluded that the power consumed in the separation process renders this method of obtaining atomic power impractical except where very high concentrations of power are needed. Theoretical studies of the thermal diffusion method have also appeared.²⁶

It is important to note that Brodsky's experimental work was carried on at Dnepropetrovsk, site of the gigantic Dneprostoi power project. During the war it was necessary to move this laboratory, like others in Leningrad and Kharkov, to Siberia.

There has not been considered in this short review the important Soviet discoveries in cosmic ray research, in investigations of B-ray spectra, in nuclear scattering of neutrons and in metastable energy states of nuclei. However, sufficient references have been given to indicate the Soviet contributions to nuclear research.

Certain characteristics of the nuclear research of Soviet scientists are immediately apparent to anyone studying their technical papers. Among these are the rapid increase in the quality and quantity of their output, the freedom to publish and discuss their work, and the large Government support of pure research. It is of interest to note that most of the extensive cosmic ray studies carried on in the Soviet Union during the war did not have a direct bearing on the war effort but may ultimately be of considerable importance for the whole world in the production of cheap atomic power.

²³ A. E. Brodsky, and O. K. Skaare, *Journal of Physical Chemistry* (USSR) 13 451 (1939) [Russian], *Acta Physicochimica* 10 729 (1939).

²⁴ A. E. Brodsky, *Journal of Applied Chemistry* (USSR) 13 670 (1940) [Russian].

²⁵ A. E. Brodsky, *Acta Physicochimica*, 17 224 (1942).

²⁶ For example: A. E. Brodsky, *Acta Physicochimica* 13 294 (1940) and L. Gurevich, *Journal of Experimental and Theoretical Physics* (USSR) 14 60 and 121 (1944) [Russian].

AN AMERICAN RELIEF MISSION TO MOSCOW

EDWARD C. CARTER

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THIS IS A REPORT on my latest visit to the Soviet Union on behalf of the American Society for Russian Relief. At the invitation of Soviet authorities, I went over last August with David Weingard, our director of relief activities, for three reasons. First, we were eager to see existing conditions for ourselves. Second, we wanted to find out whether responsible Soviet authorities wanted our program to continue, and finally, if they did, to get specific information as to what type of aid and materials were most needed. To get this information, we traveled extensively, going into areas which had not been visited by foreign civilians since the outbreak of war.

The authorities who greeted us in Moscow were Dr. Sergei Kolesnikov, chairman of the Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies; Dr. Vladimir Kemenov, chairman of VOKS (Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries), and Vladimir Sverdlin, chairman of *Raznoexport*, the Section of the Commissariat of Foreign Trade which warehouses and physically handles shipping of Russian Relief supplies to various sections of the Soviet Union. Leo Gruliov, who has been our representative in the Soviet Union for 22 months, joined us at this meeting.

All of these gentlemen were emphatic in expressing the hope that our aid would continue. It was their suggestion that before discussing details of a future program, we see for ourselves the need which exists by visiting devastated areas. This was on a Thursday evening. At dawn, Saturday, we were on our way by plane to the Donbas in the southwestern Ukraine.

We spent five days in the Donbas, and I wish it were possible to report in detail all we saw and transcriptions of all our conversations in this leading pre-war Soviet center of coal, steel and iron. The sight of the city of Stalino was shocking to one fresh from America. Officials proudly told us that in the last two years they had managed to "re-build" 40 percent of the 95 percent destruction deliberately wrought by the

retreating Nazis, who dynamited and burned everything behind them. I put "re-build" in quotes because almost the only type of rebuilding possible under existing conditions is a makeshift. It means putting up a fourth wall where three are left standing, or putting a roof on top of one story left standing. There have been no materials, tools nor labor available to build solidly. Much of the building has been done by women, literally with their bare hands, from bricks, timber and nails painfully salvaged from the rubble.

The few hospitals which remained out of the 40 which functioned in one area before the war had been rebuilt by the surgeons and nurses themselves. They were facing a dilemma when we were there. There was no window glass, and it would be necessary to board over windows during the bitter winter months; neither was there enough electricity to keep lights going all day because the power plant had been only partially restored since its dynamiting. Their choice lay between cold and light. I don't know how they are going to solve the question. I do know that the warm pajamas and blankets they obtained from Russian Relief will help considerably, and I wish it were possible to export glass easily!

We saw literally thousands of both army and civilian wounded in the hospitals. Many are handicapped by loss of one or more limbs and unable to return to useful life without artificial limb equipment. We visited many homes for war orphans in the area. These children are receiving the best of everything in the Soviet Union, but that best is little. Women workers take turns on their one free day a week to visit the children and play "mother" to them. Many of these women and also returning soldier-fathers hope to adopt the youngsters as soon as conditions allow so that they will not suffer longer than need be from lack of homes and family influence. At several collective farms, we had the pleasure of eating vegetables grown from Russian Relief seed. We visited some individual homes, just walking in, introducing ourselves and talking to housewives.

The cities of Stalino and Voroshilovgrad, with pre-war populations of about 500,000 and 200,000 respectively but now considerably less, each received half a million units of Russian Relief clothing, as well as seeds, foodstuffs for orphans' homes and medical supplies for hospitals and clinics. In the warehouses from which our materials are distributed, we found the supplies exceedingly well kept. Only one bale, badly packed, had been damaged in shipment.

We were told of an interesting custom which follows the distribution of Russian Relief supplies. Meetings are called of patients and hospital staffs, of housewives from block to block, even of children in

the orphans' homes. These gatherings are addressed by a relief official who explains that the "gifts" are not part of U. S. government aid, but are sent by individual Americans out of friendship. The meeting is then told something about America—its part in the war and now, in peace. Everywhere we went, we found that even the passer-by in the street to whom we would introduce ourselves and talk knew about Russian Relief and warmly appreciated this aid from individual Americans.

We visited a number of industrial establishments which the Russians were trying to bring back into production again. We went down into one coal mine which had been so severely dynamited and flooded by the Germans that, after two years of back-breaking labor, it still was not possible to take out coal in quantity. It was hoped, however, that the mine would be in working order again before the bitter winter months.

The great locomotive works in Voroshilovgrad at one time employed 25,000 workers, but when we visited the plant there were only 7,000. When we were there, many of them were engaged in clearing debris. By the spring, they may be able to begin solving Russia's frightful transportation problems by building locomotives. Up to now, they have been able to do little more than repair work on engines.

Yet, it must be admitted that even this was crucial work at the time. After the Donbas was liberated from the enemy, the skilled workers badly needed for the locomotive plant might have been brought back from the Ural production centers to which they had been evacuated prior to the Nazi advance. The entire economy of the area depended on transportation facilities. But there was no place to house the workers, little to feed them, and worst of all, no clothing for them.

The director of the locomotive works told us, "It was a vicious circle, and it was broken by the receipt of enough Russian Relief clothing to help our men work and live during the first terrible winter after the Nazis were driven out. This community will never forget your aid."

On our return to Moscow, we made a round of visits to major hospitals and war orphans' homes, to religious leaders, to the outlying Russian Relief warehouses. Then we met once again with a group of leading officials. We informed them that we were more than satisfied by our own observations that the need continued to be desperate and that, as one Russian said when I asked him what was needed most, "Everything is needed most."

The leaders of three religious groups with whom we met seemed to know a great deal about our activities, and asked that their appreciation and blessings be reported to the American people. They were Patriarch Alexei of the Russian Orthodox Church, Yakov Zhidkov, M. I. Karev

and M. I. Golyayev, leaders of the All-Union Council of Evangelists and Baptists, and Rabbi Samuel Chobrutsky, chairman of the Moscow Jewish Community. The three million Baptists were especially touched by the aid which American Baptists were sending Russia through the Interfaith Committees of Russian Relief, according to Mr. Zhidkov.

Dr. Chobrutsky told us that while the Jews had suffered disastrously under Nazi occupation, the lives of many had been saved thanks to the policy of evacuating them in advance of the Nazis wherever this was possible. He registered approval of our policy of distributing supplies on a non-sectarian basis and according to need. He also felt that individual packages which single the recipient out of the community were not desirable. As the leader of Moscow Jewry expressed it, his people had "gone hungry when other Soviet citizens were hungry, ill-clad when they had no clothing. When supplies are distributed we receive our share too. We wish to eat and be warmly dressed only when we can all share together."

GRAVE PROBLEM OF AMPUTEES

One of the most important hospitals we visited was the Central Institute of Traumatology and Orthopedics. It is headed by Dr. Nikolai Priorov, who recently visited the United States. Dr. Priorov has been given the grave responsibility of caring for the Soviet Union's hundreds of thousands of amputees, one of the most important tasks in the country today. We saw even small children lacking an arm, a leg, or both. Mines were so widely sown by the retreating Germans that they are still exploding in unexpected spots; the tragic fact is that many youngsters will probably be maimed before the land can be completely cleared.

Since we in the United States are critical of the fact that our 16,000 amputees are not getting the most modern artificial limbs, it seems evident that the Soviet Union must develop her own means of rehabilitating her own million or more citizens in the same plight. We have promised to help accomplish this gigantic task by collecting and shipping machinery and equipment to manufacture artificial limbs for the young people maimed in this war.

The great shortage of hospital equipment in the Soviet Union was all the more pathetic to us after we had observed what Russia's doctors can do—with the proper instruments. One man we saw had been fitted with an arm and several inter-changeable artificial hands. His other arm had been amputated above the wrist, and the two bones of the forearm had been separated slightly to form two thick fingers once flesh and skin covered the bones. Training had enabled him to use these "fingers" and even to develop a strong grip. Later the "fingers" developed sensitivity

at the tips, so that he could dress and eat without help, in fact take care of himself completely.

The spirit of these people is beyond praise. I saw children smiling and laughing while their backs, and sometimes their faces as well still bore the open sores of years of malnutrition. I saw women, whose own children had died, laying bricks all day with their bare hands and then tenderly singing songs to babies whose mothers had disappeared in the holocaust. I saw thousands of Moscow residents trudging happily to the stadium for a sports parade, carrying their shoes under their jackets because it was raining and they did not dare let the paper-thin soles get wet. I saw a girl of 18, both her legs gone, taking her first uncertain steps on artificial legs; stumbling and falling, she would insist with a smile on walking all the way toward us to prove she could do it. I had a "birthday party" in a Donbas hospital with a 16-year-old boy who had lost both arms. He insisted that we celebrate his birthday with him, and wrote a little poem of greeting and thanks to America. He hoped we would hurry our artificial limb project, because that gave him hope of getting arms, and he wanted to "get to work."

RUSSIAN RELIEF GOODS RECEIVED

From the inception of Russian Relief up to August 1, 1945, a great variety of shipments arrived in the Soviet Union. The following is a partial listing:

3,816 tons of drugs and medical supplies, value between \$7,000,000 and \$8,000,000;

590,000 individual packages (household emergency kits), value \$2,000,000;

708,000 coats, value \$8,400,000;

170,000 suits, value \$2,500,000;

Miscellaneous articles of wearing apparel, value \$15,500,000;

980,000 pairs of shoes, value \$2,000,000;

240,000 meters of textiles, value \$1,000,000;

200,000 blankets, value \$600,000;

1,098 tons of foodstuffs, value \$700,000;

In addition to seeds directly contributed by American farmers, Russian Relief sent 3,900 tons of seeds, value \$1,400,000;

1,300 sewing machines, value \$100,000;

31,557 watches, value \$300,000; and

Miscellaneous supplies, value \$300,000.

To August 1, 1945, the Soviet Union had received and distributed relief supplies to a total value of \$42,648,000. Besides, Soviet warehouses on that date held unprocessed supplies valued at \$1,500,000. (Accord-

ing to the available data, Russian Relief shipments valued at \$579,000—1.5 percent of total shipments—were lost by submarine action during the war.) In addition, more than \$5,000,000 worth of Russian Relief goods are now en route to the USSR, and another \$4,000,000 worth are waiting shipment in warehouses in the United States or in factories which are filling our orders. Added to the supplies which have already been distributed in the USSR, these additional shipments will increase the total figure of Russian Relief's help from the moment of its inception to the present time to \$54,000,000.

The handling of Russian Relief supplies in the USSR is the responsibility of VOKS (Society for Cultural Relations with Foreign Countries). All shipments are received by VOKS, which has secured the services of *Raznoexport* in storing and transporting the supplies. *Raznoexport* reports monthly on the goods received.

To insure the most efficient use of the large variety of supplies sent, a Central Committee for the Distribution of Russian Relief Gifts was organized on the initiative of VOKS. Serving on this committee are representatives of VOKS, of the Commissariats of Health and Education, of the social insurance and labor reserve administrations, of the Red Army and of the Soviet Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies.

This committee receives from Russian Relief lists of supplies we are sending based on bills of lading from ports and supply bases. The committee also receives applications from organizations in need of aid and discusses these needs with their representatives. Then it issues an order to the Export Section to deliver specified supplies to given destinations within a stipulated period.

In various localities, on the initiative of VOKS, commissions have been formed to distribute the gifts from America. These commissions study the concrete needs of local organizations and of the general population, conduct the necessary investigations and draw up the distribution lists. When the supplies arrive, the commission checks the shipments against the documents, arrange for their storage in warehouses, and, finally, distribute them. Serving on these commissions are local health, education, trade union and Red Cross officials.

The work of VOKS is arranged to make as brief as possible the period between the arrival of shipments at the central warehouse and their distribution among Soviet citizens. In many instances, deliveries have been so speedy that persons hundreds of miles away from Moscow have received supplies within 48 hours after their arrival at the warehouse.

Today, the Soviet people are faced with a task of reconstruction and

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPPLIES IN THE USSR

From Inception of Program to August 1, 1945

(All Figures in Millions of Dollars)

	Clothing, Blankets, Textiles	Total Supplies
I TO LIBERATED DISTRICTS		
RSFSR	7.5	8.35 ^a
Ukrainian SSR.....	6.7	7.4 ^b
Belo-Russian SSR.....	1.2	1.3 ^c
Moldavian SSR4	.4
Karelo-Finnish SSR2	.2
Latvian SSR.....	.4	.4
Lithuanian SSR3	.3
Esthonian SSR.....	.2	.2
II TO DISTRICTS WITH POPULATION EVACUATED FROM OCCUPIED AREAS		
RSFSR	8.6	8.75 ^d
Armenian SSR.....	.7	.7
Azerbaijani SSR.....	.4	.4
Georgian SSR7	.7
Kazakh SSR.....	.7	.7
Kirgiz SSR.....	.3	.3
Tadjik SSR.....	.2	.2
Turkmen SSR.....	.3	.3
Uzbek SSR.....	.3	.3
III TO THE RED ARMY^e.....	.9	1.2^f
IV TO HOSPITALS^g		7.8^g
V NO DISTRIBUTION BREAKDOWN BY AREAS AVAILABLE.....		2.7^h
TOTAL	30.0	42.6

This chart was compiled from records submitted to Mr. Carter by Soviet officials in Moscow. A comparison of these figures with Russian Relief shipment records indicates that less than 1.5 percent of the supplies sent were lost at sea—by enemy action—during the war.

^a Besides the specified items, this total includes gifts of seed (.6); sewing machines (.05); and miscellaneous items (.2).

^b Besides the specified items, this total includes seed (.7).

^c Besides the specified items, this total includes seed (.1).

^d Besides the specified items, sewing machines (.05) and miscellaneous gifts (.1) are included.

^e No distribution breakdown by areas is available for these two categories.

^f Besides the specified items, this total covers gifts of watches (.3).

^g This figure is for medical supplies exclusively.

^h Household emergency kits (2.0) and food products (.7) are included.

rehabilitation so vast as to be without parallel in world history. To help them, we have set a goal of \$25,000,000 for our 1946 campaign. This means that we plan to send \$25,000,000 worth of medical supplies, hospital equipment, drugs, food and clothing; cash is never transmitted.

Foremost among our projects is the one already mentioned of helping to equip a network of hospitals for the treatment of amputation cases and workshops for the manufacture of artificial limbs in the Soviet Union. We brought back with us a list of hospital supplies and other desperately needed items and have set up a procedure for receiving similar lists in the future.

Specifically, we propose to send the following:

- Equipment for surgical, clinical and laboratory use in connection with amputation cases;

- Equipment for factory and workshop use in connection with the manufacture of artificial limbs and parts;

- A penicillin research and production laboratory;

- Equipment for a vitamin pilot and control plant;

- Hearing aids for the determination and treatment of deafness—electrical devices and repair parts;

- Equipment for use in connection with refrigeration anesthesia in surgery and other cases;

- Miscellaneous medical equipment such as autoechnicons, abrodil intravenous drug solution and bandage-cutting machines;

- Medical books and mimeograph machinery (the latter to process texts when there aren't enough books to go around);

- A movie camera (for morale purposes so that men going through the painful procedure of getting "new" faces may see movies of other patients before and after surgery);

- Utilitarian equipment for hospitals (vacuum cleaners, etc.);

- Vegetable seed;

- Drugs;

- Food;

- Clothing, and

- Books.

Obviously we found in our recent visit to the Soviet Union one and the same answer to the questions, "Is our help wanted?" "Is it needed?" That answer is an emphatic "Yes." Through the American Society for Russian Relief, Soviet doctors, health officials, educators and directors of orphanages will continue to receive some of the wherewithal to put into effect rehabilitation plans of basic humanitarian value.

NEWS IN BRIEF

Japanese Fisheries Taken Over

DOUBLING OF THE OUTPUT of the Soviet Far Eastern fish industry is foreseen with the acquisition of the former Japanese fisheries on southern Sakhalin, the Kurile Islands, and Kamchatka, it was recently revealed by A. Ishkov, Commissar of the Fish Industry, on his return from an investigation of the North Pacific fishing areas.

Reconstruction and repairs must be undertaken immediately, however, because the Japanese in their retreat demolished many shore installations and took with them the large modern fishing fleet which used to operate off the northern Kuriles and Kamchatka. Four canneries have already been rebuilt in the former area. In Kamchatka, where the Japanese operated fisheries under lease for many years, 29 canneries, 30 refrigeration plants and four cold-storage installations which formerly belonged to the Japanese are being restored. A major reconstruction program is planned for southern Sakhalin, where 10 canneries and as many cold-storage plants are scheduled to come into operation this year. In addition, five ship-repair bases will be erected.

To complete the rehabilitation of these enterprises speedily, several hundred Russian fishery engineers have been sent to the Far East from the Caspian and other Soviet fishing basins, Commissar Ishkov has disclosed. Increased earnings, special benefits and substantial aid in home-building are offered those going east to settle the newly acquired fishing areas.

Special trusts have been organized to operate the fisheries in southern Sakhalin and the Kuriles.

Railway Operations Reviewed

RED ARMY RAILWAY troops, with units from the Commissariat of Railroads, repaired for emergency use during the war some 25,000 miles of Soviet railroads, and 18,750 miles of track in other countries where the Red Army operated on its westward march. Thirteen thousand bridges in the USSR were put back into service during the same period, *Trud* recently disclosed in an interview with Lt.-General E. V. Kovalev, Commissar of Railroads.

Military freight shipments were estimated to have totalled 19 million carloads; the volume of shipments for war industries and other branches of the national economy during the war was even larger.

Coal shipments nearly doubled on the South Ural lines; in the mining industry, freight traffic increased 70 percent. A number of important new lines were reconstructed, including the North Pechora line and two lines along the middle Volga.

A brigade of railroad troops entered Berlin with Marshal Zhukov's advance units last spring and took part in the storming and encircling of the enemy capital.

Orders and medals were awarded to 112,000 railway workers during the war, according to the Commissar of Railroads. One hundred and twenty-seven of these workers were named Heroes of Socialist Labor.

Commissar Kovalev also disclosed that the metallurgical, oil, machine-building and building industries now account for more than two-thirds of the USSR's railroad freight traffic. Major technical improvements are planned for the railroads in the near future. Freight volume is expected to exceed the pre-war level by 1947.

Plan Merchant Marine Expansion

EXPANSION of the Soviet merchant marine, with accompanying technical improvements, is envisaged under the Fourth Five-Year Plan, Captain V. Yakovlev reveals in an article recently published in *Krasny Flot*. The Commissariat of the Merchant Marine, which has already organized operations on the Danube, is in the course of establishing new services for the Baltic, Barents and White Seas. Restoration and improvement of Soviet ports, with large-scale introduction of floating cranes, bunkers and other modern loading and unloading equipment are to be provided under the new plan. War-interrupted operations to raise the Caspian Sea level, which has recently dropped markedly, will be resumed. Speedy vessels are to be built, and much attention will be given to the development of a dredger fleet.

Military Titles Given NKVD

THE PRESIDIUM of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR recently repealed a 1943 decree which had established special titles for the commanding personnel of the organs of the Commissariat of Internal Affairs (NKVD) and of the Commissariat of State Security (NKGB). The new measure authorizes the extension of military titles established for Red Army officers to the NKVD and NKGB commanding personnel, with the corresponding title of general for Commissars of State Security. The latter are to wear the same uniforms and insignia as Red Army generals and Red Fleet admirals. Rights and exemptions granted

(Continued on page 92)

A 'Model' Wedding Is Arranged

MIKHAIL ZOSCHENKO*

THERE IS PROBABLY not a journalist in our country who has not written something or other about ZAGS, the Bureau of Vital Statistics. At one time, no less than six articles on the subject issued from my sinful pen. The reason for all this attention is obvious. Everyone wants important civil acts, particularly marriage, to be conducted with appropriate dignity and sentiment. Everyone wants the bureau to be clean, the bridegroom to be treated civilly, the bride to be pleased with the ceremony. Since this has not always been the case, it is easy to understand the bitterness which has always crept into discussions of ZAGS.

Journalists have placed most emphasis upon ZAGS' humdrum atmosphere, the drab office set-up and the absence of solemnity in the marriage registration. Some solemnity is desirable, of course, but I see no need to concoct anything special. To me it seems superfluous to have a brass band blaring at the registration, or to present the bride with a box of candy. Generally speaking, candy may be eaten and music may be heard later on.

Be that as it may, ZAGS has been the subject of many sharp words. And it now appears that these were taken to heart by Comrade Ilyin, ZAGS consultant for Novo-Annensky Raion (District) in Stalingrad Oblast (Region). He too felt that registration was being handled in too dreary a manner and did not touch the hearts of bride and groom.

Ilyin suddenly realized what was lacking in the marriage registration. And so he hit upon the idea of holding solemn meetings before registration. Such a simple thought, as simple as mooing, and yet it excited our consultant. Naturally, he did not dare run the risk of introducing such an innovation himself, so he submitted the idea to the *raion* executive committee.

The consultant's idea met with favor at committee headquarters. Vice-

* EDITOR'S NOTE:—This example of Soviet self-criticism by a well-known journalist and playwright is one of several articles which have recently appeared in the Russian press about procedures for registering vital statistics at ZAGS (abbreviation of *Zapis Aktov Grazhdanskovo Sostoyaniya*). The translation is from *Izvestia*, August 22, 1945.

(Continued on page 90)

DOCUMENTS

Treaty Between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Polish Republic on the Soviet-Polish State Frontier

THE PRESIDIUM of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the President of the National Council of the Polish Republic, desiring to settle the problem of the State frontier between the Soviet Union and Poland in a spirit of friendship and accord, have decided to conclude for this purpose the present Treaty, and have appointed their plenipotentiaries:

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—Vyacheslav Mikhailovich Molotov, Deputy Chairman of the Council of People's Commissars and People's Commissar for Foreign Affairs of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics;

President of the National Council of the Polish Republic—Eduard Osobka-Morawski, President of the Council of Ministers of the Polish Republic,

Who, having exchanged their credentials found in due form and good order, have agreed on the following:

Article I

In accordance with the decision of the Crimea Conference, to establish the State frontier between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Polish Republic along the "Curzon Line," deviating from that line in Poland's favor in some districts from five to eight kilometers according to the map in the scale 1 : 500,000 annexed hereto, conceding additionally to Poland:

(A) Territory situated to the East of the "Curzon Line" up to the river Zapadny Bug and the river Solokia south of the town of Krylow with a deviation in Poland's favor up to 30 kilometers at the maximum;

(B) Part of the territory of the Bjalowiez Forest in the sector Niemirow-Jalowka situated to the East of the "Curzon Line," including Niemirow, Gainowka, Bjalowiez and Jalowka, with a deviation in Poland's favor up to 17 kilometers at the maximum.

Article II

In accordance with the provisions of Article I, the State frontier between the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Polish Republic passes along the following line: from a point situated approximately at zero point six kilometers to the southwest of the source of the river San, northeastward to the source of the river San, and then down the midstream of the river San to a point situated to the south of the inhabited locality of Solina, then east of Przemyśl, west of Rawa Russka up to the river Solokia, then along the river Solokia and the river Zapadny Bug in the direction of Niemirow-Jalowka, leaving on the side of Poland part of the territory of the Bjalowiez Forest mentioned in Article I, and thence to the meeting-point of the frontiers of the Lithuanian Soviet Socialist Republic, the Polish Republic and East Prussia, leaving Grodno on the side of the USSR.

Delimitation on the spot of the frontier indicated in the present Article will be carried out by a Mixed Soviet-Polish Commission, whose seat will be in Warsaw and which will begin its work not later than 15 days after the date of exchange of ratification instruments.

Article III

Pending final decision on territorial questions at the peace settlement, part of the Soviet-Polish frontier adjoining the Baltic Sea will pass, in conformity with the decision of the Berlin Conference, along a line leading from a point situated on the

eastern shore of Danzig Bay and indicated on the map annexed hereto, eastward to the north of Braunsberg-Goldap to the point where this line meets the frontier line described in Article II of the present Treaty.

Article IV

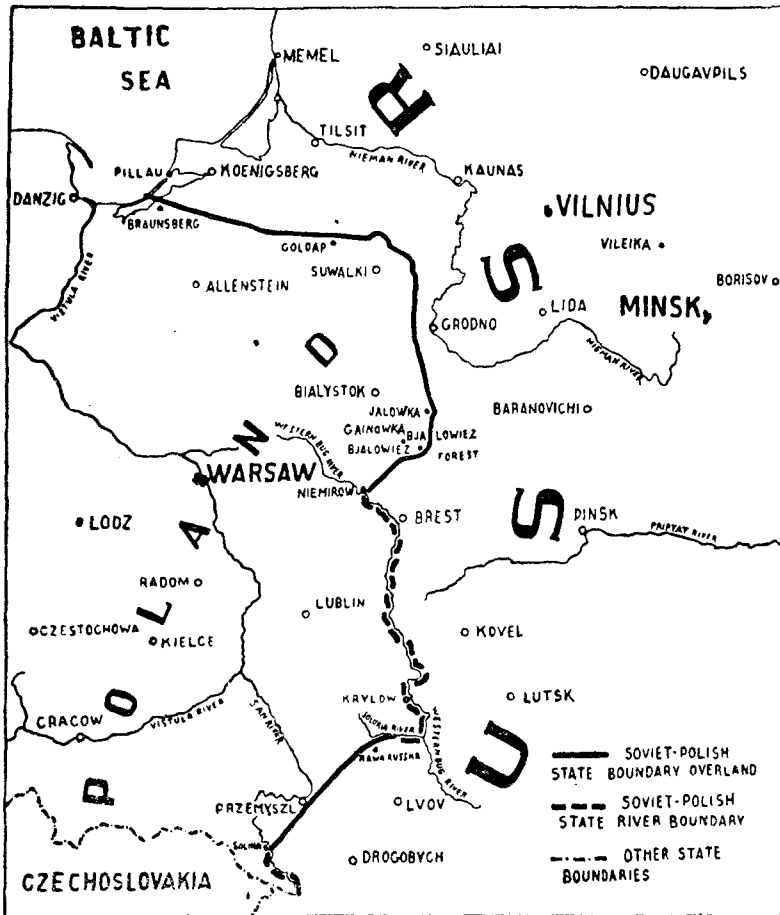
The present Treaty is subject to ratification, which must take place at the earliest possible date. The Treaty comes into force upon exchange of ratification instruments, which will take place in Warsaw.

Done in Moscow, August 16, 1945, in two copies each in the Russian and Polish languages, both texts having equal force.

Signed:

On authorization of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—V. M. MOLOTOV.

On authorization of the President of the National Council of the Polish Republic—E. OSUBKA-MORAWSKI.



THE SOVIET-POLISH STATE FRONTIER *Moscow News, August 18, 1945*

Agreement Between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Provisional Government of National Unity of the Polish Republic on Compensation of Damages Caused by German Occupation

THE GOVERNMENT of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Provisional Polish Government of National Unity, considering that the invasion by German troops of territories of the Soviet Union and Poland and the temporary occupation of Poland and of a considerable part of the territory of the Soviet Union by German troops caused tremendous damages to the Soviet Union and the Polish Republic, the destruction of many towns, industrial enterprises, railways and whole branches of national economy, the elimination of whose consequences requires prolonged and strenuous efforts of the Soviet and Polish peoples.

guided by the desire to render each other every assistance in carrying out the tasks connected with the elimination of the above grave consequences of German occupation,

have agreed on the following:

Article I

In conformity with its statement at the Berlin Conference, the Soviet Government relinquishes in favor of Poland all claims to German property and other assets and also to shares of German industrial and transportation enterprises throughout the territory of Poland, including that part of the territory of Germany which passes to Poland.

Article II

In connection with the decisions of the Berlin Conference on the procedure of satisfaction of the reparation claims of Poland, the Soviet Government agrees to concede to Poland from its share of the reparations which are to be delivered to the Soviet Union:

(A) Fifteen per cent of all reparation deliveries from the Soviet zone of occupation of Germany which will be effected in the period after the Berlin Conference;

(B) Fifteen per cent of that industrial capital equipment, fit for use and complete, which, as established by the Berlin Conference, must be received by the Soviet Union from the Western zones of occupation of Germany, while delivery of this equipment to Poland is to be effected in exchange for other goods from Poland;

(C) Fifteen per cent of that industrial capital equipment, fit for use and complete, which is to be delivered to the Soviet Union from the Western zones without payment or compensation in any way.

In its turn the Polish Government undertakes, beginning with 1946, to deliver to the Soviet Union annually in the course of the entire period of occupation of Germany, coal at a special agreed price: in the first year of deliveries 8,000,000 tons, in the next four years 13,000,000 tons each year, and in subsequent years of the period of occupation of Germany 12,000,000 tons each year.

Article III

The present Agreement is done in Moscow, August 16, 1945, in two copies each in the Russian and Polish languages, both texts being equally valid.

Signed:

On authorization of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—V. M. MOLOTOV.

On authorization of the Provisional Polish Government of National Unity—E. OSUBKA-MORAWSKI.

Protocol

IN SIGNING the Agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the Provisional Polish Government of National Unity on Compensation of Damages Caused by German Occupation, the signatories agreed on the following:

For precise definition of the kind, terms and methods of deliveries of reparations

due to Poland in conformity with Article II, Paragraphs A, B, and C, of the above Agreement, a Mixed Soviet-Polish Commission is to be set up consisting of six members, three members from each party. The Commission will be presided over by a representative of each Party in turn, on mutual agreement.

Done on August 16, 1945, in Moscow, in two copies each in the Russian and Polish languages, both texts being authentic.

Signed:

On authorization of the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics—V. M. MOLOTOV.

On authorization of the Provisional Polish Government of National Unity—E. OSUBKA-MORAWSKI.

(Source: *Soviet News*, London, August 18, 1945.)

USSR Inheritance Law of March 14, 1945

Regarding Heirs by Law and By Will

Article I

To establish that heirs by law are children (including adopted children), the spouse and incapacitated parents of the deceased, as well as other incapacitated persons who have been dependent upon the deceased for not less than one year prior to his death.

If any child of the decedent dies before the opening of the estate, then his inheritance share goes to his children (grandchildren of the decedent) and in case of the death of the latter, then to their children (great-grandchildren of the decedent.)

In case of the non-existence of such heirs, or in case of non-acceptance by them of the estate, the heirs by law are the able-bodied parents, and in their non-existence the brothers and sisters of the decedent.

Article II

Every citizen can bequeath his entire property or part thereof to one or several persons mentioned in Article I of this decree, as well as to government organizations and to social institutions.

However, the testator cannot deprive his minor children and other, incapacitated heirs of the share to which they would be entitled under inheritance by law.

In case of the non-existence of persons mentioned in Article I, the property may be bequeathed to any person.

Article III

To extend the action of this decree to estates which originated before the decree was issued but which have not been accepted by heirs and have not become the property of the State as escheated estates.

Article IV

To instruct the Presidia of the Supreme Soviet of the Union republics to enter the proper changes in the civil codes of the laws of the Union republics.

Signed:

President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—M. KALININ.

Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—A. GORKIN.
Moscow, the Kremlin, March 14, 1945.

[Editor's Note: Acting in accordance with Article IV of the above decree, the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the RSFSR issued a decree on June 12, 1945 which enters changes in Articles 418, 420, 421, 422 and 423, and amends Articles 424, 429, 430 and 433 of the Civil Code of the RSFSR. This decree was published in *Vedomosti Verkhovnovo Sovet SSSR*, No. 38, July 12, 1945. The Russian text and a translation are on file in the library of the American Russian Institute, 58 Park Avenue, New York.]

Procedure for Application of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of July 8, 1944, to Children whose Parents did not Enter into Registered Marriage

In furtherance of Articles 19 and 20 of the Decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR of July 18, 1944 "On Increasing State aid to Expectant Mothers, Mothers of Large Families and Unmarried Mothers; on the Protection of Motherhood and Childhood; on Institution of the Honorary Title of Mother-Heroine, the order of Glory of Motherhood and the Motherhood Medal," the Supreme Soviet of the USSR resolves:

Article I

To establish that the claims of mothers regarding the collection of alimony for the maintenance of a child born before the issuance of the decree of July 8, 1944, from the person with whom the mother did not enter into a registered marriage, provided that the respondent is entered as the father of the child in the books of the Bureau of Vital Statistics are subject to examination by judicial organs.

Article II

Children born before the issuance of the decree of July 8th, 1944, of parents who had not entered into a registered marriage, have—in the case of death of the father (entered in the books of the Bureau of Vital Statistics)—the right to inherit, as well as the right to receive a pension and State subsidies established for families of servicemen, in equal measure with children born of registered marriages.

Article III

In cases when the mother enters into a registered marriage with the person with whom she formerly had a child, and who considers himself the father of the child, the child acquires the same rights as the children born of the registered marriage. The child is given the patronymic derived from the name of the father and, by mutual consent of the parents, the surname of the father.

Signed:

President of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—M. KALININ.

Secretary of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR—A. GORKIN.

Moscow, the Kremlin, March 14, 1945.

(Source of both decrees: *Vedomosti Verkhovnovo Sovet SSR*, March 15, 1945. For text of decree of July 8, 1944, see Vol. VI No. 1, pp. 69-76 of the REVIEW.)

NEWS CHRONOLOGY

SEPTEMBER 1, 1945 to NOVEMBER 30, 1945 *

Newspapers are named primarily for convenient reference, although the same items may appear in other newspapers. The date given is the date on which the event occurred, while the number in parentheses following the name of the newspaper indicates the date of the paper in which the report appeared. Unless otherwise indicated, the source is The New York Times. (NYHT—New York Herald Tribune; DW—Daily Worker; EB—Information Bulletin, Soviet Embassy, Washington; DSB—Department of State Bulletin; SN—Soviet News of the Soviet Embassy, London.) Moscow is the source of items not otherwise "datelined."

* Full texts in English can be found in source indicated. These texts are on file in the library of The American Russian Institute.

INTERNAL AFFAIRS

Administration

SEPTEMBER

- 2—A directive announced today calls for establishment of new clubhouses which Red Army officers are to use instead of the Red Army houses which were formerly shared with privates. (3) See Sept. 15 listing.
- 6—Announcement is made of a decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet abolishing the State Defense Committee and transferring its functions to the Council of People's Commissars. SN (6) EB (Oct. 13).
- 7—The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet extends the demobilization order of last June 23rd to the 13 eldest groups serving with Red Army forces in the Far East. NYHT¹ (8).
- 10—The Council of People's Commissars announces awards of 25,000 and 15,000 rubles to Soviet athletes breaking world records and national records respectively. NYHT (11).
- 14—The Extraordinary State Commission for Ascertaining and Investigating Crimes of the Nazi Invaders computes the total financial damage from the German invasion and occupation at 679 billion rubles. About 25 million people were made homeless in an area where 88 millions had lived before the war; 1,710 towns, more than 70,000 villages and six million buildings were totally or partially destroyed. (14) EB (Oct. 11).*
- 15—To raise living standards of Red Army officers, the Soviet Government announces each would henceforth receive an additional food ration free, and that colonels and higher officers would have permanent orderlies. The war tax is abolished for officers. (16).
- 26—The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet orders demobilization, by the end of the year, of soldiers and non-commissioned officers between the ages of 32 and 42 (excluding officers) and of special categories of soldiers, such as farm specialists,

* For items on the war with Japan, Sept. 1 to 9, see Vol. VII, No. 1.

¹ See Vol. VII, No. 1, p. 57 for text of decree.

teachers, and higher school students. (27). *SN* (27).*

OCTOBER

- 1—Creation of a "victory over Japan" medal is announced. *DW* (3).
- 5—The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet orders the USSR's first nationwide election in more than eight years—for the selection of deputies to the Supreme Soviet—to take place February 10, 1946. *NYHT* (6) *EB* (9).
Election Decree and Text of Regulations. *EB* (Nov. 24).*
- 6—The Council of People's Commissars grants additional privileges, tax exemptions, and material aid to families of soldiers killed in the war, of war invalids and of servicemen and demobilized men. *SN* (9).
- 9—TASS announces the creation by the RSFSR Council of People's Commissars of a department to deal with population transfers, including evacuees and repatriated citizens, also of farmers moving to better land. *Komsomolskaya Pravda* (9).
- 10—By a decree of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet, published today, the state of martial law instituted at the beginning of the war is ended, except in the Baltic Republics, Western Ukraine and Western Belorussia. (11).
- 14—A government decree abolishes the Commissariat of the Tank Industry and transfers its personnel to a new Commissariat of the Transport Machine Building Industry of the USSR. The Commissar remains Col. Gen. V. A. Malishev. (16). *SN* (16)
- 14—The Supreme Soviet authorizes direct representation in the next Supreme Soviet for Red Army occupation forces outside the USSR, with each group of 100,000 electing one deputy in the February elections. *EB* (Nov. 20).
- 17—A list of 1287 electoral districts published by *Pravda* for the Sup-

reme Soviet elections reveals administrative-territorial changes of the war period. (Nov. 30). See this issue, pp. 17-25.

NOVEMBER

- 3—The price of bread (in the open stores) is reduced 25 percent, and the sugar ration is increased about 50 percent. (5).
- 6,7—In Generalissimo Stalin's absence from Moscow, Foreign Commissar Molotov delivers the principal address of the State holiday and reviews the Red Square demonstration. The Order of the Day is issued by Marshal Alexander M. Vasilevski, Deputy Defense Commissar. (8). Vasilevski Order *EB* (13)*
Molotov address (27).*
- 11—Creation of a Commissariat of Industrial Crops of the USSR is announced. The Commissar is Nikolai Skvortsov. *SN* (14) *EB* (Dec. 18).

Economic Life, Reconstruction

SEPTEMBER

- 6—The Council of People's Commissars announces that, beginning October 1st, half the consumers goods output of local industries would be allocated for sale locally and that the other half would be distributed by the Council of People's Commissars of the respective Union Republics. (6).
- 14—Daily output of 1,000 trucks and passenger cars of a new model is scheduled at the Molotov plant in Gorky under the new Five-Year Plan. *NYHT* (15).

OCTOBER

- 9—Preliminary work is reported to have begun on what *Trud* describes as the world's largest water reservoir on the Kura River between Tbilisi and Baku. *NYHT* (10).
- 17—Construction of a large ball-bearing plant, the first in the Ukraine, is reported to have started at Kharkov. *NYHT* (18).

NOVEMBER

- 3—*Pravda* reports that the White Sea-

Baltic Canal, bombed out of use on June 28, 1941 by the Germans, will be back in operation next spring. (4).

- 24—S. R. Akopov, Commissar of the Medium Machine-Building Industry, states that five new truck and three new passenger car models are in production, and that automobile output will have increased three to four times by the end of the Five-Year Plan. *NYHT* (25).

Art, Education, Science

SEPTEMBER

- 1—Soviet schools open for the new term with attendance reportedly back at pre-war levels. *SN* (4).
16—Completion of Dmitri Shostakovich's Ninth Symphony, a brief "gay and whimsical" work is reported. (16).

OCTOBER

- 4—Reuter announces that a new department of "American culture" will offer courses at Leningrad University this fall. *New York Post* (4).
17—The score of Sergei Rachmaninoff's First Symphony, destroyed by the composer in 1897 and reconstructed from recently discovered orchestrated parts, is performed for the first time by the State Symphony Orchestra in Moscow. *EB* (Nov. 1).
31—The 150th anniversary of the birth of John Keats is marked at a Moscow meeting and by publication of a collected edition of his poetry. *SN* (Nov. 2).

NOVEMBER

- 6—Prof. I. G. Sinitsin of the Gorky Medical Institute is reported to have transplanted hearts of frogs and grafted second hearts on cats, dogs and rabbits. (7). *EB* (3).
13—Establishment of an Academy of Sciences in the Kazakh Republic is announced. *SN* (13).
14—*Izvestia* reports that Soviet scientists, including Professor Peter Kapitza, have discovered through experiments being conducted in Soviet

Armenia that cosmic rays knock protons out of lead. Separation of the component parts of cosmic rays and measurement of their energy is reported. (15).

- 14—Soviet musicians greet Yehudi Menuhin as he arrives in Moscow for the first concert performances by a foreign artist since the war's end. (20). (16).

- 22—Lt. Col. P. P. Polosukhin takes off on his second high-altitude balloon flight of the month in quest of new data on cosmic rays. (24).

People

SEPTEMBER

- 25—A successful jump is reported from an altitude of 12,800 meters by Major V. Romanyuk who opened his parachute 800 meters from the ground. *SN* (Oct. 4).

OCTOBER

- 9—Generalissimo Stalin leaves Moscow for a rest. *SN* (11).
26—Alexei N. Krylov, 83, noted mathematician, shipbuilder and oldest member of the Academy of Sciences, dies. *DW* (27). *EB* (Nov. 13).

NOVEMBER

- 2—The Council of People's Commissars announces the death of Nikolai Khmelyev, actor and head of the Moscow Art Theatre. *Pravda* (2). *EB* (29).

Miscellaneous

SEPTEMBER

- 16—With the embalmed body of Lenin back in Moscow from its wartime sanctuary in Siberia, the Lenin Mausoleum reopens. *SN* (20). *NYHT* (Oct. 4).
23—On *Pravda's* 10,000th day of publication, the Government confers the Order of Lenin upon the Communist Party paper and decorates 66 members of its staff. (25).

OCTOBER

- 4—The Communist Party of the Soviet Union is reported to have six million members, compared with 3.

- 500,000 in 1940. There are about 15 million Komsomols. *DW* (5).
- 15—It is announced that passenger-liner sailings to the United States and Britain will be resumed shortly. (16).
- 23—The first Soviet ship in four years to make the voyage from the Far East is reported to have arrived at Odessa. *EB* (23).
- 24—Vladimir Sukhodrev, Moscow Legal Comptroller, discloses that Soviet divorces have dropped by two-thirds since the adoption of the new divorce law of July 8, 1944.² *NYHT* (25).
- 24—Construction starts on a weather observation station on Vize Island near the 80th parallel which will exchange year-round reports on Arctic transportation conditions with the U. S. (25). *SN* (Nov. 1).

NOVEMBER

- 28—Vice-Commissar of Health Maria Kovrigina tells a Moscow health conference that child mortality in the USSR has dropped to less than half the 1940 figure, while the birth-rate has increased 35 percent. *DW* (30). See *NYT* (22).

INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

General, United Nations

SEPTEMBER

- 7—*Stockholm*: The International Amateur Athletic Association invites the USSR to join the IAAA, and thus become eligible for participation in the 1948 Olympic Games. *DW* (8).
- 12—*London*: The International Conference of Cooperatives recognizes the Baltic Republics as "independent national republics and therefore eligible to full membership in the International Cooperative Alliance." (13).
- 18—*London*: Mr. Molotov tells a press conference that there is a "grain of truth" in reports of Soviet interest in administering the former Italian colonies of Tripolitania and Eritrea. *NYHT* (19).*
- 20—*Washington*: UNRRA Director General Lehman discloses that the USSR's July 24th request for 700 million dollars' worth of UNRRA aid was scaled down on Sept. 15th to 250 million dollars'—189 million dollars' worth for the Ukraine and 61 millions for Belorussia. (21). *NYHT* (21).
- 22—*London*: At Mr. Molotov's request, and reportedly reversing his oral agreement on procedure when the
- Conference of Foreign Ministers opened Sept. 11th, the French and Chinese Foreign Ministers are excluded from discussions of proposed peace treaties with eastern European countries with which they were not at war. (26). *NYHT* (27). See (Oct. 3, 4).
- 25—*Paris*: The World Trade Union Conference elects Vassili Kuznetsov, head of the Soviet delegation, one of the conference presidents. (26). Kuznetsov speech *SN* (Oct. 2).*
- 27—*London*: Representatives of 12 countries, including the USSR, sign an agreement setting up a new consultative organization designed to "restore, render efficient and co-ordinate" European inland transport on railroads, waterways and roads. The USSR is given a mandatory seat on the new organization's seven-member executive board. (28). *PM* (27).
- 28—*Paris*: M. P. Tarasov, a Soviet delegate to the WTUC, proposes that the projected new labor organization demand a seat in the UNO General Assembly, with the right to vote in its Economic and Social Council. (29).

² See Vol. VI, No. 1, p. 49 for text of decree.

OCTOBER

- 3—*London*: The day after the Conference of Foreign Ministers ends without reaching agreement, Molotov tells the press that refusal by the other delegations to accept a Soviet compromise of Oct. 2nd on protocol resulted in collapse of the conference. He calls for strict observance of the Potsdam agreements. (4). *SN* (5).*
- 3—*Paris*: As the new World Federation of Trade Unions comes into being, the USSR gets three seats on its 26-member executive committee. *NYHT* (4) *PM* (4).
- 4—Col. General Philip I. Golikov, director of Soviet repatriation, discloses that by Sept. 30th, 5,236,130 Soviet citizens were repatriated from enemy countries—over 2,000,000 of them by Allied Governments. The Soviet Government by the same date sent home 817,844 Allied nationals liberated by the Red Army. He charges anti-Soviet organizations in the other occupation zones of Germany with “terrorizing and deceiving our people and spreading various slanders against our country.” *SN* (8).*
- 6—*Paris*: Vassili Kuznetsov is elected a vice president of the WFTU. (7).
- 11—*London*: During debate of the UNO Preparatory Commission’s Executive Committee on relationships between UNO and the pre-war specialized agencies such as the International Labor Office (ILO), Soviet delegate Andrei Gromyko asserts that some of these agencies should be reorganized, some “liquidated.” (12).
- 14—Denying American press reports, TASS states that the Big Three agreed at Potsdam that the Montreux Convention should be revised and that questions concerning it should be the subject of direct conversations between these Governments and the Turkish Government. (15).
- 15—*Paris*: At the ILO conference, chairman Carter Goodrich of its Government body, invites the USSR to rejoin. (16).
- 24—*Washington*: Ratifications of the United Nations Charter by the Governments of the USSR, the Ukraine and Belorussia are deposited. The USSR’s ratification, the 29th, marks the birth of UNO. *NYHT* (25) *DSB* (28).
- 27—*Quebec*: Chairman L. B. Pearson of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization discloses the Soviet decision not to join FAO at this time. (23). *DSB* (Nov. 4).*
- 31—*London*: Nikolai Mikhailov, head of the Soviet delegation at the World Youth Conference, announces Soviet support for establishment of a world youth federation. (Nov. 1).

NOVEMBER

- 6—Molotov declares it impossible for the technical secret behind atomic energy “to remain the exclusive secret of some one country or some narrow circle of countries” and warns against exploitation of the discovery “in the play of forces in international policy.” The Foreign Commissar attacks the movement for creation of a so-called Western bloc. (7).* *EB* (27).*
- 11—Although Commissar Molotov rejected (Oct. 29th) a petition of the Anglo - American Correspondents’ Association that the censorship of their dispatches be ended, correspondents report a relaxation of the censorship. (12). (29). See (Dec. 12).
- 15—*Washington*: Moscow is informed of the decision of President Truman and Prime Ministers Attlee and Mackenzie King to share reciprocally with the other United Nations “detailed information concerning the practical industrial application of atomic energy just as soon

as effective enforceable safeguards against its use for destructive purposes can be devised." (16).*

17—*London*: Although the USSR was not represented at the conference which formed the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organizations, UNESCO leaves a place on its executive board for a Soviet representative. (18).

20—*Paris*: Soviet delegate Konstantin Koukin at the Intergovernmental Committee of Refugees criticizes plans to assist and re-settle Polish, Baltic and Yugoslav displaced persons who refuse to return to their own country. (21).

29—*London*: Registering Soviet opposition to the temporary trusteeship council recommended by the executive committee of UNO's Preparatory Commission, presumably because it would delay abolition of mandates, Mr. Gromyko states, "Up to this time the Soviet Union has not heard any mandatory power propose to place a mandate under the trusteeship system." *DW* (30).

United States

SEPTEMBER

1 to 4—A chess match conducted by radio between 10 U. S. players in New York and 10 in Moscow is won by the Soviet team with a score of 15 1-2 to 4 1-2. (5).

12—Opening of a Soviet operated airline between the USSR and the United States, via Yakutsk and Alaska is announced. (13).

13—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov presents the Order of Kutuzov, First Class, to Lieutenant-General Lucius D. Clay, deputy U. S. Military Governor for Germany. (14).

14—Generalissimo Stalin receives members of the House of Representatives Committee on Post-War Economic Policy and Planning for a "frank and free" discussion of the proposed six billion dollar loan, and also

Senator Claude Pepper, through whom Stalin sends this message to the American people: "Just judge the Soviet Union objectively. Do not either praise us or scold us. Just know us and judge us as we are and base your estimate of us upon facts and not rumors." Pepper (Oct. 1) Committee (Nov. 8).

16—*New York*: Archbishop Alexei of Yaroslav and Rostov arrives to attempt to reconcile opposing Russian Orthodox Church factions in America. (17).

OCTOBER

1—Following up his request of Sept. 24th at the Foreign Ministers' conference (which indicated Soviet disagreement with President Truman's directive that in the event of Allied disagreement over occupation policies in Japan United States policy will "govern") Molotov writes Secretary Byrnes that the Soviet Union attaches great importance to the creation of an Allied Control Commission on Japan. *SN* (4). See (Sept. 26).

2—*Washington*: The White House announces postponement because of illness of Marshal Zhukov's announced visit to the United States at President Truman's invitation. Zhukov expresses hope of coming in 1946. (3). See (21) (Sept. 28).

3—*London*: Soviet delegate Gromyko votes for permanent UNO headquarters in the United States. *NYHT* (4).*

5—*Washington*: Reporting on the Council of Foreign Ministers' meeting, Secretary Byrnes denies that the U. S. Government objects to the Bulgarian and Romanian Governments because they are "friendly to the Soviet Union." (6).*

10—*Washington*: Secretary Byrnes states that the Soviet proposal for a control commission in Tokyo will be taken up with President Truman and the Combined Chiefs of Staff

- but that he does not consider it wise. He states that on Sept. 7th the USSR accepted his proposal of August 21st for establishment of a Far Eastern Advisory Commission on Japan. (11).
- 10—Publication of General Marshall's Biennial Report reveals that a plan for a diversionary attack on the French coast if the situation on the Soviet front demanded it was ruled out in July, 1942 because of lack of manpower and landing craft. Marshall states that "refusal of the British and Russian peoples to accept what appeared to be inevitable defeat was the great factor in the salvage of our civilization." (10).*
- 14—*Moscow*: At a mass meeting honoring the CIO delegation which arrived in the Soviet capital October 9th, Vassili Kuznetsov proposes, and the American delegation endorses, creation of an American-Soviet Trade Union Committee to "facilitate establishment of close contact" between American and Soviet workers. (15).
- 15—*Washington*: Members of two Congressional groups which visited the USSR in September report that there is an urgent necessity for full cooperation between the two countries; Representative Karl Mundt asserts, "Russian-American policies should work both ways and apply equally in both countries." (16). *Congressional Record* (15).*
- 15—*Washington*: An agreement is concluded covering terms of Soviet purchase of 400 million dollars' worth of pipeline goods, in procurement for the Soviet war effort when Lend Lease was terminated. Payment extends over 30 years, with interest at 2-3.8 percent. (18). *NYHT* (17).
- 18—*London*: Returning from a 24-hour stay in Washington for which President Truman and Secretary Byrnes tell the press they can give no explanation, Soviet Ambassador Andrei A. Gromyko says there is "nothing mysterious" about his trip. (19).
- 22—*Washington*: The State Department discloses that Moscow has not replied to its Oct. 13th "presentation of views" that conclusion of long-term economic agreements in the case of Hungary and the other ex-satellite states during the armistice period is the concern and responsibility of the three signatories of the armistice agreements and Crimea declaration. (23). *DSB* (28).
- 23—*Washington*: While denying as "not wholly true" a report of the National Association of Manufacturers that the Administration has blocked all credits to the USSR and her "satellites" until a "satisfactory diplomatic understanding is reached with Russia," a Government spokesman discloses that difficulties in obtaining information have retarded negotiations for an Export-Import Bank credit of about one billion dollars earmarked for the USSR. (24).
- 24—U. S. Ambassador Harriman visits Generalissimo Stalin at his vacation resort in the Caucasus and delivers a message of October 14th from President Truman. After two talks with the Soviet Premier, whom he reports in good health, Harriman returns to Moscow Oct. 26th. (27).
- 25—*Washington*: The State Department indicates a possible compromise in the Soviet position on control machinery for Japan, but pending further negotiations, refuses to elaborate. (26).
- 31—The U. S. Military Mission, largest foreign mission in the Soviet capital, ceases to function after two years of wartime service. *NYHT* (Nov. 1).
- 31—*New York*: Secretary Byrnes tells the *Herald Tribune* Forum that the United States recognizes the "spe-

cial security interest" of the USSR in her Central and Eastern European neighbors, and that "America will never join any groups in those countries in hostile intrigue against the Soviet Union. We are also confident that the Soviet Union would not join in hostile intrigue against us in this hemisphere." (Nov. 1).*

NOVEMBER

- 1—*Washington*: A TASS dispatch issued two days after the Far Eastern Advisory Commission meeting opens without Soviet representation states that the USSR favors a four-power control council for Japan, on which an American would be permanent chairman, and observes that the Soviet Union is not taking part "at present" in the Far Eastern Advisory Commission deliberations. (2). (Oct. 31).
- 7—*Washington*: In a message to Mikhail Kalinin on the 28th anniversary of the October Revolution, President Truman calls the recent entry into effect of the United Nations Charter a "happy augury for cooperation between our two peoples . . . in the same spirit which animated them during the past four years of war." (8).*
- 7—*Washington*: Secretary Byrnes discloses that his Nov. 2nd note to Ankara on revision of the Montreux convention supports the principles that passage through the Dardanelles should be allowed at all times to warships of the Black Sea powers (including the USSR) and denied to warships of non-Black Sea powers, unless with the consent of the Black Sea powers or unless Turkey is acting under United Nations' authority. (8). *DSB* (11).
- 13—*Moscow*: Mark Etheridge, named October 10th to undertake a special mission for Secretary Byrnes in the Balkans, arrives for conversations with Soviet officials on his observations in Bulgaria and Romania. (14). See (Oct. 18).
- 16—*Washington*: An official statement discloses that the United States is consulting with the Soviet Union on measures to facilitate "ultimate establishment of an independent and unified Korea." (17).*
- 29—*Washington*: Mr. Truman scouts Congressional misgivings about the willingness of the Soviet Government to cooperate with UNO and states that if it operates as it should there should be no need for periodic discussions between the Big Three Chiefs of State. (30).
- 30—*Washington*: The Order of Lenin is presented to Joseph E. Davies. (Dec. 2).
- 30—*Washington*: Dr. Irving Langmuir, associate research director of the General Electric Co., tells the Senate Committee on Atomic Energy that the War Department tried to prevent him from attending the USSR Academy of Sciences' meeting last June, and that cancellation of passage of other American and British physicists gave the Russians "the very information that the Army most wanted to keep from them." *PM* (Dec. 2).

Great Britain

SEPTEMBER

- 11—*Blackpool*: Soviet labor delegate M. P. Tarasov addressing the British Trades Union Congress, advocates a new world labor organization to maintain world peace. (12). *SN* (15).*
- 12—*Blackpool*: Mr. Tarasov is not permitted to reply on the floor to an attack by George Meany, AFL official upon the Soviet trade unions. He lodges a written protest. (13). *SN* (17).*
- 18—*Switzerland*: The British news agency Reuter releases the texts of letters exchanged in 1944 between Generalissimo Francisco Franco and

Winston Churchill in which the latter, replying for the British Cabinet, describes as a "serious mistake" Franco's idea that Britain "would be ready to consider any block of powers based on hostility against our Russian allies or any assumed need of defense against them." (19).*

22—*Washington*: Field Marshal Sir Henry Maitland-Wilson, chief of the British Staff Mission, states that he is "very worried" about the Balkans and with the United States "curtailing its military influence in Europe, there is nothing to prevent Russia from becoming master in that area." The British Foreign Office disclaims responsibility for his statement. (23). *NYHT* (27).

26—*London*: In its final meeting, the Joint Committee for Soviet Aid presents a check for 75,000 pounds sterling to Soviet Ambassador F. T. Gousev for the Soviet Red Cross. *SN* (27).

OCTOBER

9—*London*: In a report to the House of Commons in which he blames the Soviet Government for the failure of the Foreign Ministers' Conference, Foreign Secretary Bevin reads a farewell message from Molotov expressing confidence that "temporary difficulties" would be overcome. (10).*

NOVEMBER

7—*London*: Bevin rejects Molotov's attack of the previous day against the Western Bloc, and states that Britain is suspicious of the Soviet Union's "coming right across the throat of the British Commonwealth." Urging Big Three harmony, Winston Churchill asserts that the Anglo-American policy of giving the USSR military secrets was not reciprocated, but praises Generalissimo Stalin and Soviet contributions to victory, and states that "nothing but a long period of

marked injuries and antagonisms" could develop an anti-Russian policy again in Britain. (8). Partial texts.

13 to 28—Playing four matches against British soccer teams, Moscow's Dynamo team wins two of the contests and ties the other two. (14), (18), (29), (30).

19—*London*: British Minister of State Philip Noel-Baker expresses dissatisfaction with the Soviet reply to a British protest against Soviet trade agreements with Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania. (20).

22—*London*: Former Foreign Minister Anthony Eden calls upon the Soviets to give foreign correspondents "the same full freedom as is allowed Russian correspondents here." He states that any arrangements Britain may make with her western neighbors "are no more aimed against Russia than are Russian arrangements with her neighbors aimed at us." (23).

Austria, Hungary

SEPTEMBER

22—*Vienna*: Karl Renner, Chancellor of the Provisional Austrian Government declares that the Red Army "has handed to the civil administration all areas that were no longer in the immediate zone of operation." (23), (25).

25—*Budapest*: The Soviet Government restores diplomatic relations with Hungary. *NYHT* (27). *SN* (28).

OCTOBER

4—*Vienna*: The Red Army takes forcible possession of the Austrian oilfield at Zistersdorf, according to the *New York Times*, following the Austrian Government's refusal of a Soviet proposal for formation of an Austro-Soviet Consortium for the oilfields. (7). See (Sept. 16).

16—*Budapest*: The Hungarian Provisional Government ratifies the five-year Hungarian-Soviet economic agreement as an enabling treaty

authorizing Hungarian concerns to negotiate individually with the Soviet Foreign Trade Commissariat. (18). (Dec. 27).

18—*Budapest*: Marshal Klementi Voroshilov, head of the Allied Control Commission for Hungary, is reported to have released Hungary from its obligation to surrender 600,000 tons of wheat as reparations. (19). *NYHT* (20).

20—*Vienna*: As the four occupying powers, through the Allied Control Commission give limited recognition to the Austrian Provisional Government, Chancellor Renner receives a separate Soviet communication announcing Moscow's desire to re-establish diplomatic relations and exchange representatives. (21), (22).

26—*Vienna*: Austria's two largest banks—Credit Anstalt and Laenderbank—are reportedly claimed by the USSR as "German assets" under the Potsdam Agreement. (27).

NOVEMBER

3—*Budapest*: In Hungary's first war crimes trials, Laszlo Bardosy is found guilty on several counts, including issuance of Hungary's war declaration against the USSR without Parliamentary consent, and sentenced to be hanged. (4).

6—*Budapest*: Anglo-American reports (October 18) that Marshal Voroshilov proposed that the Hungarian parties present a common slate in the November 4th elections, or urged its postponement, are denied by Zoltan Tildy, leader of the majority Small Landholders' Party. (7). See (Oct. 19, 22). *NYHT* (Sept. 20).

9—*Budapest*: Disclosing receipt of a U. S. note to the Hungarian Government protesting the five-year Soviet-Hungarian economic pact, Zoltan Tildy, Premier-elect, states that the treaty "is no longer a matter for Hungary to decide." (10).

Balkans

SEPTEMBER

2—*Sofia*: The Soviet Government is reported to be giving Bulgaria badly needed livestock forage and cereals and to have agreed to a reduction in her reparation payments for the support of Red Army forces. (3). (Nov. 13).

4—Romania's Premier Petru Groza and Foreign Minister George Tatarescu arrive in Moscow and are received by Premier Stalin. (6). *SN* (10).

10—The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet awards the Order of Victory to Marshal Tito of Yugoslavia. (11).

12—Romanian-Soviet talks end in agreements on economic and cultural matters. Soviet armistice demands are reduced because of Romania's food crisis and drought and she is offered economic aid including grain loans, and agreements on repatriation of Romanian prisoners of war. The following day Premier Groza and Foreign Minister Tatarescu leave Moscow. (13), (14), (25). Joint communique *SN* (15).*

19—*London*: Mr. Molotov announces Soviet support of Yugoslavia's claim to Trieste. (20). See press conference *NYHT* (19).*

OCTOBER

1—Romanian grain deliveries to the USSR are suspended until the food situation improves. (Nov. 13).

24—TASS denies an Associated Press report (October 21st, from Sofia) of Red Army troop maneuvers along the Bulgaro-Turkish border. (25). See *NYHT* (22).

NOVEMBER

7—The 20-year-old Soviet-Turkish treaty of neutrality and non-aggression, formally denounced by Moscow last March 25th, expires without any agreement having been reached to replace it. (9).

10—The Soviet Government recognizes the provisional Albanian Government of General Enver Hoxa. (11).

- 12—*Belgrade*: Following his electoral victory, Marshal Tito states that there is nothing exclusive about Yugoslavia's "warm and profound sympathy . . . for and friendship and brotherhood" with the USSR because it also wants "good and even better relations with our other allies." (14). *Pravda* (15).
- 13—*Bucharest*: Soviet Ambassador Sergei I. Kavtaradze charges that the Bucharest riot of November 8th (when a Soviet general ordered Romanian troops to cease firing into a government-banned demonstration marking King Michael's birthday) was in part a manifestation against the USSR. (14). See (9).
- 27—The Soviet Government re-establishes diplomatic relations with Greece and names Admiral K. K. Rodionov Ambassador to Athens. *NYHT* (28).

Czechoslovakia, Poland

SEPTEMBER

- 19—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov tells Polish emissaries that Poland's new western frontier includes several hundred additional square miles of territory west of Stettin on the lower Oder River. The new map, dated September 14, replaces the delimitation line announced July 10th. (20).
- 24—*Prague*: A Soviet-Czechoslovak trade treaty is announced under which the USSR will supply iron ore, hemp and cotton to Czechoslovakia and receive industrial machinery in exchange. (25).
- 27—The Red Army Command announces the transfer to the Czechoslovak Air Force of all equipment used by Czechoslovak air forces in the eastern front. *Czechoslovak Press Bureau* (Oct. 19).
- being sent to the 17 provincial Polish capitals to put down banditry. (16).
- 23—The new Czechoslovak Ambassador Dr. George Horak presents his credentials at the Kremlin. *Czechoslovak Press Bureau* (Nov. 9).
- 24—*Quebec*: Stanislaw Mikolajczyk Polish Deputy Premier and Minister of Agriculture, states that nearly all Soviet troops have left Poland or are preparing to go, and that he has signed an agreement with the USSR whereby about five million acres of land cultivated by the Red Army are being turned back to Poland. *NYHT* (25).
- 24—*Warsaw*: At the Democratic Party convention, Vice Minister of Justice Leo Chajn comments on charges that Poland has become a "17th republic" of the USSR. He asserts, "In this Government, there is not one Minister who wishes this . . . It is political realism that makes us want to have friendly and close relations with Russia . . . We shall always be against the creation of western blocs directed against our eastern neighbor." (26).
- 30—*Prague*: Premier Zdenek Fierlinger tells the first session of the Czechoslovak Parliament since 1938 that "alliance with the Soviet Union is the main principle of our foreign policy" and that in his opinion "the security of the Czech Republic was never so assured as today." (31).

NOVEMBER

OCTOBER

- 15—*Warsaw*: The Polish Government announces that Red Army units are

- 15—*Prague*: The capital bids an official farewell to the Red Army occupation troops beginning their withdrawal from Czechoslovakia. *NYHT* (16).

Far East

SEPTEMBER

- 5—*Tokyo*: Premier Prince Narukhiko Higashi-Kuni tells the Japanese Diet that the Soviet declaration of war forced Japan "into the worst possible international situation." (6).*
- 10—It is announced that the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet has awarded the Order of Suvorov, 1st Class, to Marshal Choy Bolsan of the Mongolian People's Republic. *SN* (10).
- 21—*Chungking*: Mao Tse-tung, Chinese Communist leader states in Chungking that the Chinese Communists hope the Sino-Soviet pact can be "thoroughly realized" because it is "beneficial to the people of both countries and to world peace in the Far East." (23).
- 29—Moscow radio announces that partial evacuation of Soviet troops from Manchuria began several days ago and that the large-scale evacuation will begin in mid-October and be completed by the end of November. (30).

OCTOBER

- 29—*Chungking*: Lieut. Gen. Tu Li-ming, Nationalist Commander for North China, confers at Changchun with Marshal Rodion Y. Malinovski, Soviet Commander in South Manchuria and is told that his forces could make a "safe" landing in Yingkow area between October 31st and November 10th, when Red Army forces would leave the area and permit Nationalist armies to move north as they withdrew. (Nov. 5).

NOVEMBER

- 2—*Tokyo*: The "Commission for the Repatriation and Relief of Japanese Abroad," an Affiliate of the Japanese Government, charges atrocities against Japanese nationals by Soviet troops in Manchuria and Korea. (4).
- 12—*Ulan Bator*: The Presidium of the

Maly Khural of the Mongolian Peoples Republic recognizes the protocol of the commission for the Oct. 20th plebiscite (in which 487,409 are reported to have voted unanimously for Outer Mongolia's independence from China) as "an official document for the recognition of the independence of the Mongolian People's Republic by the Chinese Republic." A letter from Marshal Choibalsan formally announcing these results is sent to Mr. Molotov with documents on the plebiscite, conducted under the Sino-Soviet treaty of August 14, 1945. *Izvestia* (Nov. 22).

- 12—*Batavia*: President Achmed Soekarno, chief of the "Indonesian Republic," appeals to Generalissimo Stalin to intervene in the Netherlands East Indies civil war. (13).
- 13—*Chungking*: Soviet forces grant permission to the Chinese Central Government to fly 1,500 troops daily into Chungchun. (14), (12).
- 16—The Supreme Soviet authorizes restoration of Soviet citizenship to former Russian subjects and former Soviet citizens in Manchuria territory. *NYHT* (17).
- 26—*Chungking*: Chang Kai-ngau, chairman of the Economic Commission to Manchuria, states in Chungking that Russia is doing her utmost to help China take over Manchuria. (27).
- 28—*Washington*: Brigadier-General Patrick Hurley, former U. S. Ambassador to China, states that as a special envoy of Franklin D. Roosevelt, he conducted negotiations with Premier Stalin and Commissar Molotov which resulted in a United States-Soviet agreement for full support of the Chinese Nationalist Government. *NYHT* (29).
- 29—Moscow radio announces that the Soviet government has "consented" to a Chinese request that it defer "for some time" the withdrawal of

Red Army troops from Manchuria. (30).

Finland

OCTOBER

- 8—A Finland-USSR Society delegation headed by Finnish Education Minister Dr. Johan Helo is received by Generalissimo Stalin. *SN* (10), (12).
- 11—*Helsinki*: Dr. Helo discloses that Stalin has extended Finland's period for payment of 300 million dollars in war reparations from six to eight years. *NYHT* (12). Also *NYHT* (Nov. 26).
- 26—*Helsinki*: A mixed Soviet-Finnish Commissions signs an agreement on demarcation of the Soviet-Finnish state frontier in the Pechanga (Petsamo) area. Representatives of this commission and a Norwegian representative sign a protocol on demarcation of the frontiers where the USSR, Finland and Norway meet. *SN* (Nov. 5).

NOVEMBER

- 15—*Helsinki*: At the opening of the war guilt trial of eight Finnish wartime leaders, the prosecutor reads a Finnish Foreign office telegram to Berlin of June 25th, 1941, acknowledging receipt of a letter from Hitler concerning a Finnish-German military agreement. (15), (16), (18).
- 25—*Helsinki*: Premier Juho Paasikivi states that the Russians are "carefully following out the terms of the armistice" and manifesting "much sympathy and understanding," also that the question of a Soviet-Finnish friendship and mutual defense alliance, reportedly broached by the Soviet Government, "cannot be raised until after the peace treaty." The Allied Control Commission orders Finland to deliver to the USSR before the end of 1946, under the armistice, 14 million dollars' worth of goods "to restitute or replace" products and property re-

moved from Soviet territory during the war. (26), (27).

Germany

SEPTEMBER

- 9—*Berlin*: Following similar action in Saxony and Brandenburg, the Soviet-sponsored Government of Mecklenburg Province decrees the expropriation of estates of large landholders, German war criminals and Junkers. (10). Saxony; (7). (Dec. 30).
- 9—*Berlin*: 80,000 Germans participate in Soviet-sponsored ceremonies honoring victims of fascism. (10).
- 12—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov, chief of the Soviet Military Administration and Commander-in-Chief of Soviet occupation forces in Germany, announces establishment of a German Government with 11 departments to function in his zone under Soviet control. (13). Also (3).
- 13—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov orders all schools in the Soviet zone to open October 1st and bans the use of textbooks published during the Nazi regime. Curricula, texts and teachers must be submitted for approval. (14). *SN* (17).
- 16—*Berlin*: To speed elimination of "Nazi thought and militarism," Marshal Zhukov orders German organizations and individuals in his zone to turn in all Nazi publications by October 1st. (17).
- 18—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov orders confiscation of the assets of the German Red Cross and liquidation of its national presidium in Berlin. (Oct. 23).
- 25—*New York*: Former Secretary of the Treasury Morgenthau states in New York that no machinery has yet been delivered from the United States and British zones to the USSR under the Potsdam agreement. *PM* (26).

OCTOBER

- 7—*Berlin*: A report of the American

economic advisers to the U. S. Office of Military Government, already delivered to the Soviet government, states that the Potsdam formula for the collection of reparations and the industrial disarmament of Germany will be difficult if not impossible of achievement. (8).*

- 18—*Nuremberg*: With Soviet Major General I. T. Nikitchenko as presiding officer, the International Military Tribunal receives the Allied indictment against 24 chief German war criminals and seven organizations. (19).*
- 23—*Berlin*: It is disclosed that the Free Germany Committee in the USSR has been out of existence since August. (24).

NOVEMBER

- 1—*Washington*: The Soviet Government is reported to have informed the United States and Britain that it favors internationalizing the Ruhr Valley. (2).
- 7—*Berlin*: To mark the Soviet holiday on Nov. 7th, Berliners in the Soviet zone get gifts of 50 pounds of coal per family. (10).
- 11—*Berlin*: A memorial is dedicated to Soviet soldiers who fell in the battle for Berlin. *NYHT* (12).
- 13 to 15—*London*: At a conference of Soviet occupation officials and German administrators, the latter are reported to have been given substantial powers. Marshal Zhukov is reported to have announced that the Soviet Union has now moved all the equipment it wants for reparations from the Soviet zone. *NYHT* (16).
- 15—*London*: It is disclosed that members of a Soviet military mission and of the British officers have unveiled a monument to Soviet prisoners of war tortured to death at the Belsen concentration camp. *SN* (15).
- 15—*Berlin*: Marshal Zhukov orders all mines and factories producing precious metals and semi precious

stones in the Soviet zone to register their current stocks with the Soviet Military Government and to deliver their production every 15 days to designated banks at prices valid in the first quarter of 1945. (16).

- 17—*Nuremberg*: Soviet Deputy Prosecutor Yuri Pokrovski protests the rejection by the International War Crimes Tribunal of an American-Soviet plea to indict Alfred Krupp as a major war criminal. He calls Alfred Krupp not a substitute for his ailing father but himself a "criminal of the first magnitude." (18).
- 20—*Berlin*: The Allied Control Council approves a plan for the transfer of Germans under the Potsdam Agreement. Two million of those to be moved from Poland and 750,000 from Czechoslovakia are to be admitted to the Soviet Zone by August 1, 1946. *DSB* (Dec. 9.)
- 30—*Berlin*: Charging that the British were keeping numerous Wehrmacht units intact in their zone in violation of the Potsdam Agreement, Marshal Zhukov asks the Allied Control Commission for a commission of inquiry. *NYHT* (Dec. 14).

Iran

OCTOBER

- 10—*London*: Secretary Bevin states that Britain and the USSR have agreed to withdraw their troops from Iran by March 2, 1946, in conformity with the Tripartite Agreement. *NYHT* (11).

NOVEMBER

- 20—*Teheran*: Iranian Government troops enroute to reinforce garrisons in Azerbaijan where an autonomous movement has started are stopped by Soviet authorities and refused permission to enter the Soviet occupation zone. (21), (Dec. 6).
- 25—In conversations with Madjed Ahy, Iranian Ambassador to Moscow, Commissar Molotov is reported to

have given assurances of Soviet respect for Iranian sovereignty, to have stated that the Soviet government has no intention of interfering with legitimate Iranian troops movements, and to have denied charges of Soviet aid to Azerbaijan residents. (26).

- 29—*Teheran*: Soviet troops begin an unannounced withdrawal from the Iranian capital, evacuating the railway station, communications center and military headquarters. (Dec. 2).
- 29—*Washington*: Rejecting the U. S. proposal of November 24th that Soviet and British troops withdraw from Iran along with U. S. troops by Jan. 1st instead of March 2nd, Mr. Molotov blames "reactionary elements" for the "undesirable incidents" accompanying attempts of the Azerbaijan people of Northern Iran to obtain "national autonomy within the limits of the Iranian State." He opposes dispatch of additional troops to the area because it would compel the Soviet Government to bring in new troops to safeguard its garrison and preserve order. (Dec. 9).* U. S. note: *DSB* (Dec. 2).*
- 30—*Washington*: Hussein Ala, new Iranian Ambassador, announces Soviet rejection of all ten points in his Government's protest against alleged Soviet support of the separatist movement. (30), (Dec. 1).

Other Countries

SEPTEMBER

- 14—*Oslo*: The Norwegian Foreign Office announces that the Soviet Government has ordered the withdrawal of all Red Army forces in Norway. (15).
- 21—*Lima, Peru*: A favorable Moscow reply is reported to a note from the U. S. State Department suggesting establishment of diplomatic and commercial relations between the USSR and Peru, as recommended

by the Peruvian Congress in July. (22).

OCTOBER

- 1—Following the Swiss Government release (Sept. 29th) of the report of an investigation by a Soviet-Swiss Commission of Soviet charges of maltreatment of Soviet refugees and internees in Swiss camps, the Soviet government resumes the repatriation of Swiss citizens which it suspended last June 16th. (30). *SN* (Oct. 3).
- 8—*Washington*: It is disclosed that the Soviet Union "promptly rejected" a proffer of diplomatic recognition reportedly made by the Farrell-Peron Government of Argentina through other South American nations. (9). *NYHT* (8).
- 11—*Tangier*: As the provisional international administration authorized in an agreement which the USSR takes over from the Spanish authorities without Soviet representation, it is disclosed that the agreement contains strong Soviet reservations on Spanish representation in the provisional administration. (12). See (Sept. 2).
- 24—*Berne*: The Swiss government announces the release of Soviet State Bank funds which have been frozen in Switzerland, also Soviet agreement that Swiss credits established in the USSR in 1941 for imports from the USSR are now repayable. (25).
- 31—A Soviet demand that Italy pay a total reparations bill of 300 million dollars, one-third of which would go to the USSR and the rest to Yugoslavia, Albania and Greece, is disclosed by TASS. (Nov. 1).

NOVEMBER

- 16—*Mexico City*: Alexander Kapustin (appointed Soviet Ambassador to Mexico on Sept. 29th to succeed the late Konstantin Oumansky) presents his credentials to President Manuel Avila Camacho. (17).

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A "Model" Wedding Is Arranged

(Continued from page 61)

chairman Chernyshev even developed it further. He pointed out that a meeting attended by only two persons in a half-dark ZAGS wouldn't be solemn enough. No indeed, a better idea would be to escort the bride and groom directly to committee headquarters. "If it is raining," Comrade Chernyshev observed, "I will come to the window and speak. If the day is fair, I'll stand up in a truck and make some appropriate remarks."

Inspired by this hearty support, Ilyin returned to ZAGS and immediately began making arrangements. Although we don't know what thoughts assailed our consultant during those days when the fate of ZAGS hung in the balance, we may assume that he was beginning to dream of receiving a medal for his idea. Perhaps a zinc medal with the modest but expressive inscription: "For Zeal Beyond Reason."

Finally, the time arrived for the first "model" wedding.

Up the hamlet's main street rumbled several horse-drawn carts and automobiles adorned with ribbons and flowers. The wedding procession halted before the executive committee's headquarters. Comrade Chernyshev came out (it wasn't raining) and made a short speech from a truck. Among other things he said: "I proclaim the opening of the solemn meeting upon the occasion of the marriage of citizen N and citizenness NN." A brass band started playing. Then, one after another, the orators began to deliver appropriate speeches.

We don't know how the bride and groom felt. We don't know whether the groom took part in the goings-on or perhaps sat in the truck consoling his bride with assurances that "this music" would probably end soon. Nor have we been informed how the schoolboys behaved. We assume that they climbed on the truck and added their share of noise and thunder to the celebration. We do know that the chairman of the *raion* executive committee did not appear on the street. Standing at an open window, he witnessed the entire proceedings with a condescending smile and now and then applauded a speaker.

At last, the tired bridegroom and no less tired bride were conducted to ZAGS. Since our consultant would have been greatly offended had the event been solemnized only at committee headquarters, he opened a second ceremonial meeting after the bridal couple had been ushered into the bureau. Since representatives of various organizations were on hand at ZAGS, this was a completely successful affair. Consultant Ilyin had the last word. He concluded a touching speech with these words: "In the name of the law, I proclaim the marriage in force."

Then everybody went out into the street, where a "flying"¹ meeting was held. Comrade Chernyshev was present, and concluded the celebration with these words: "On my own behalf, and on behalf of the local soviet, I greet the newlyweds. Let us wish them a happy life!" The band struck up again and then the newlyweds were taken away—I don't know where.

Well, perhaps this affair was rather touching. It showed a sincere desire to do things better, with more grace. But, we regret to say, it had the opposite effect.

We are not opposed to solemn weddings. But the ceremony which our consultant proposed—well, that was a bit too much. No rhyme, no reason . . .

¹ Brief.

Pudovkin Doing Film on Nakhimov

V. I. PUDOVKIN is producing a feature film based on the life of a nineteenth century Russian sea hero, Admiral Nakhimov. The picture was begun in Moscow and Odessa, and shooting was recently completed on a three-masted sailing vessel in the port of Yalta. The Sevastopol siege and battle of Sinope figure in the action.

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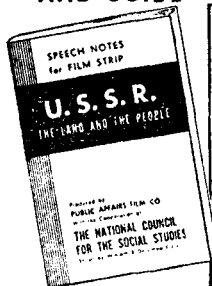
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News in Brief

(Continued from page 60)

generals and other Red Army officers, and Red Fleet admirals will be extended to corresponding personnel in the NKVD and NKGB.

Develop Pedagogical Research

THE TWO-YEAR-OLD ACADEMY of Pedagogical Sciences of the RSFSR was the subject of a recent *Pravda* article by its president, Academician V. P. Potemkin, RSFSR Commissar of Education.

The Academy has more than 750 members. Fifty-four of the Soviet Union's 58 doctors of pedagogy and 75 of its professors of pedagogy are closely associated with the institution. Serving on its regular staff are 23 regular and 26 member-correspondents. There are departments of pedagogics, methods and psychology.

Attached to the institution are seven affiliated scientific research institutes, a library on adult education, a museum, a pedagogical laboratory, and a Central House for Children's Art Education. One teacher-training establishment and 26 schools cooperate in an experimental program for the development and testing of new educational policies. An affiliated institution is scheduled to open shortly in Leningrad.

Educators from Bulgaria, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia and Poland joined the leading Soviet pedagogues at a conference of the Academy last autumn. Panel discussions were supplemented by open meetings which thousands of teachers attended. Some of the topics discussed, which ranged from the teaching of mathematics and Russian language to problems of student fatigue, are the subject of recent articles in Soviet journals, including the new *Soviet Pedagogy*, published by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. Another of its publishing ventures will be the re-issuance of the classics of Russian pedagogic, including works of Tolstoi.

Civil Air Fleet Growing

OPERATIONS of the Soviet Civil Air Fleet in 1945 tripled those for 1940, according to Major General P. E. Timashev, Assistant Director of the Civil Air Fleet, who was recently interviewed by *Izvestia*. With service back on a complete peace-time footing, 1946 operations are expected to more than double last year's, and will include inauguration of regular passenger service between the Soviet capital and Vladivostok, Tashkent and Alma-Ata. To link two important oil centers, another passenger service will be established between Baku and Ufa. The use of planes in medical first-aid work will be expanded, according to

Timashev. Two-engine planes which were widely used during the war as troop transports have been re-equipped for passenger service.

A. S. Yakovlev has designed a four-engine model (with a cruising speed of about 280 miles and a capacity of 50 to 60 passengers) which is under consideration for the Moscow-Kharbarovsk run, according to Major General Leshukov, chief engineer of the Civil Air Fleet. This trip has been shortened to an average of 72 hours; schedules on flights to other Far Eastern points has also been speeded up. Light four-passenger planes able to land on small flat surfaces are being manufactured for communications services between regional centers and collective farms.

Much activity has been reported recently on the Arctic air routes. Late last July, regular freight and passenger service over the 5,000-mile route between Moscow and Providence Bay (via Arkangelsk, Igarka, Tiksie Bay and Camp Schmidt), was opened by a five-man crew of veteran Arctic fliers headed by Ivan Cherevichny. During the summer, too, routine and special flights were made to obtain data on unusual ice movements. A plane piloted by M. Titlov flew more than 15,000 miles over the Kara and Laptev Seas to provide scientists with data on the autumn movements of the flocks.

SCIENCE AND SOCIETY

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Scientific work continued in the Arctic throughout the war, it was recently disclosed by *Komsomolskaya Pravda*. Polar stations, including floating installations, and geo-physical laboratories, received new equipment and improved their forecasting.

Open School For Engineering Instructors

THE USSR'S FIRST Engineering-Pedagogical Institute of Labor Reserves, just opened in Moscow, will train instructors for trade, railway and factory schools in a five-year course of study. There are departments of mechanics and technology, power and physico-mathematics. *Komsomolskaya Pravda* reported that 300 young people were expected to register for the first school term, also that the school would organize three-months' courses for heads of district labor reserve administrations.

Plan Observatory Near Kiev

THE UKRAINIAN Academy of Sciences has approved the designs of architect A. V. Shchusev for the Ukraine's principal observatory, to be constructed in the Goloseyevski Forest near Kiev. The new structure will have four rotating domes.

Russian Institute in Stockholm

A RUSSIAN INSTITUTE was opened recently at Stockholm University to support study and research in the Russian language and culture. The organization maintains a card index of all books on Russia and Russian developments in Sweden's libraries. It publishes bibliographical notes and pamphlets, and arranges courses and exhibitions.

The president of Stockholm University is president of the Russian Institute board of directors, on which also serve principals of three Stockholm high schools, representatives of Sweden's Foreign Department and of Swedish export industries.

Books on U. S. Housing

THE USSR ACADEMY of Architecture has recently published the first two volumes of a series expected to run into many volumes under the general title, *U. S. Experience in Housing Construction*. R. Y. Khiger is the author, and the books are being issued under the general editorship of K. S. Alabyan, well-known Soviet architect. The first two books are devoted to individual houses and city-planning.

Plan Kharkov-Rostov Highway

CONSTRUCTION of an automobile highway between Kharkov and Rostov, is planned with connecting asphalt roads to Stalino, Artemovsk and Kramatorsk. This *autostrada* will be a continuation of the Kiev-Poltava-Kharkov highway now under construction.

To Publish Geographical Literature

ESTABLISHMENT of a Publishing House for Geographical Literature was recently announced by *Izvestia*. Classical works of Russian, English and other geographers will be issued this year. Work has begun on a three-volume geographical dictionary of the USSR.

New Plays on European Themes

ANNOUNCED for production by Moscow theaters this season are two new plays whose action takes place in western Europe. They are M. Svetlov's *Brandenburg Gates* and Konstantin Simonov's *Under Prague's Chestnut Trees*.

Leningrad Confers on American Culture

THE PHILOLOGY DEPARTMENT of Leningrad State University recently held a conference on American culture with the participation of Leningrad musicians and film representatives. Leningrad scholars reported on American linguistics, songs and films, also on the study of American literature in the Soviet Union and of foreign languages in the United States. The Leningrad Conservatory presented a series of concerts of American music for the occasion.

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